This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

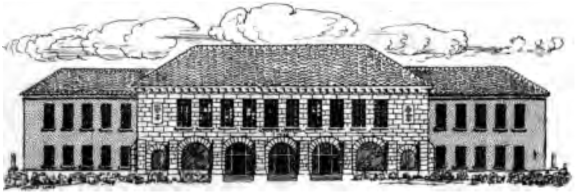
+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`



SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
LIBRARY

GIFT FROM
THE LIBRARY OF
SUPERINTENDENT
H. S. UPJOHN

STANFORD UNIVERSITY
LIBRARIES

THE DISCIPLINE OF THE SCHOOL

BY

FRANCES M. MOREHOUSE

SUPERVISOR OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHING
ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY

WITH INTRODUCTION

BY

LOTUS D. COFFMAN, PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

D. C. HEATH & CO., PUBLISHERS
BOSTON NEW YORK CHICAGO

563542
C

COPYRIGHT, 1914,
BY D. C. HEATH & CO.

1A5

TO HIM WHOSE FAITH IN ME
MAKES THIS AND ALL OTHER WORK
I MAY BE GRANTED TO DO
A SLIGHT TRIBUTE:
MY FATHER

AUTHOR'S FOREWORD

It was not the daring of my own spirit which first conceived the idea of practically denying an old pedagogic maxim which says that, given lessons well taught, the order of a school will take care of itself. Neither was I the first to gainsay the truth of the cheerful superstition that no specific help upon questions of discipline may be given a teacher; that each situation, as it presents itself, must be met in the light of certain general principles which are doubtless very sound, but which do not always readily come to mind in the nick of time. Nevertheless these new doctrines met a ready response from one to whom experience and observation have combined to show that the management of behavior is in itself a definite phase of school work, and a definite problem to be solved; and that fairly concrete means of achieving good results may be passed from one teacher to another, as truly as a concrete manner of teaching a geography lesson may be taught one teacher by another.

The first chapters of this book deal with the general aspects of the situation, and with the theory of discipline. The latter chapters take up the concrete problems of school life and offer suggestions for their solution. A constant effort has been made to keep the subject matter practical, suggestive, helpful. At the same time, there has been no attempt to evade the necessity for real thought, for thorough analysis, and for that grasp of the big plan without which no teacher can really succeed as a disciplinarian. An illuminating conception of the social organization not only of the school, but of the world, underlies the new discipline, which errs neither on the side of that soft pedagogy which ignores social obligation, nor with the older blind severity which denied social advantages. It is inexorable, sure of its authority, and sternly firm; but it recognizes the right of self-government which comes as the reward of trustworthiness, and the joy that comes from happy coöperation. It is this conception of the nature of school management and discipline, applied to cases which most teachers know by heart, which forms the subject of this book.

So many people have helped in the making of the book, that it is quite impossible to make adequate acknowledgment of my debts to them. But I wish especially to thank Dr. L. D. Coffman, at whose suggestion the work was undertaken, for helpful criticism and encouragement. A number of people have given time and thought to the answering of questions bearing upon their experience and knowledge of school affairs, notably Miss Sallie H. Webb of Cincinnati, the late William J. Morrison of Brooklyn, and Miss Kate Smith of Los Angeles. To Miss Charlotte Reichmann I am especially indebted for hearty and helpful coöperation in translating German treatises and in criticizing and proofreading. Several of my colleagues in the Training School of the Illinois State Normal University, notably Miss Lora Dexheimer and Mr. Edwin A. Turner, have given me helpful suggestions. Two of the chapters have appeared in *The American Schoolmaster*. To others I have given due credit in the body of the text.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER PAGE

INTRODUCTION xiii

I. THE PLACE AND WORK OF THE SCHOOL IN MODERN LIFE 1

The functions of the school; its relations to other institutions; the source of its authority; the school and parents.

II. THE MODES OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT 13

Different modes are the result of our complicated relations.

I. The mode of Absolute Authority — its origin; its weakness; cases in which it may be used; types of pupils with whom it should be used; the merging of imposed authority into voluntarily accepted authority.

II. The mode of Appeal to Personal Interest — the use of incentives; ideals of self-advancement; its use with adolescents; its effect upon the curriculum; its effect upon the choice of studies and of conduct; the danger of this mode.

III. The mode of Control through Personal Influence — its power; its temptation to the teacher; use and exercise of personal influence; the process of socialization; of generalization; its use in the High School.

III. THE MODES OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT — *continued* 35

IV. The mode of Wholesome Repletion — the impenetrability of attention and interest; busywork; motivation of studies. This mode in the high school — two kinds of organization; the interests of adolescents; reasons for the failure of this mode; high school fraternities; interest as a basis for organization; the nature of organizations; means of realizing these characteristics; some of the interests utilized; manner of administration.

The psychology of this mode — its use of ceremony; of intellectual stimuli; of emotional stimuli; of ambition; of the instinct for leadership.

IV. The Modes of School Government — *continued* 53

V. The mode of Appeal to Social Consciousness — making the social relation conscious; rewards and punishments for social and unsocial conduct; principles governing social conduct.

Special forms of school government founded upon the mode of Social Consciousness — self-government as an ideal; systems aiming to help establish self-government; the four types of pupil-government plans, with examples; arguments for and against such schemes.

V. Recent Developments in American Life as They Affect the Question of School Discipline 74

The motive for the inquiry; feminization; interest in school work; two sides to toleration; democracy and its effect; the cultural ideal; the passing of the bully.

VI. The Prescription of Disciplinary Activities 81

The question of formal discipline; the position accepted as a basis in these pages; definition of terms; prescription of habits, mental training, and social aims. The crystallization of race experience in prescription; the present revolt; what teachers may do to effect a reconciliation; the object of prescription; its application; its outcomes.

VII. The Disciplinary Process 92

Definition of the word "discipline"; an adequate conception of the phases of discipline; the ideal in the teacher's mind; in the minds of the pupils; establishing the ideal by assumption, by definition and clarification, by correlation, and by illustration. Realization of the ideal by coöperation of teacher and pupils, by habits founded upon instincts wisely adapted, by the development of judgment.

VIII. THE SPIRIT OF THE SCHOOL 109

Elements in determining this spirit in teachers; in pupils; the school environment as a factor; its characteristics; the practicability of having a good spirit; means of curing it; by kindness, by industry, by obedience, by joy, by school unity.

IX. AN ANALYSIS OF OFFENSES COMMON IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS 121

The basis of classification; offenses of misdirected energy — whispering, note-writing, school mischief of many kinds. Offenses rising from a resentful resistance to imposed control — disobedience and truancy, deliberate annoyance of teachers. Offenses due to physical conditions, both in the environment and in the pupils themselves — bad results of wrong temperature, bad air, poor light, dirt, poor equipment. Obscenity, lack of attention, indifference. Offenses due to untrained moral judgment and perverted ideals — influence of the community; fighting, shielding evil-doers, lying, stealing, cheating, gaming. Offenses of sensationalism — bad odors, animals in school, ingenious misdeeds, misleading appearances. Offenses of imitation — impudence and defiance, lawlessness, ridicule, profanity and obscenity, hazing, strikes and walkouts, fraternities, tobacco, alcohol and drugs. Offenses due to untrained manners — vandalism, impudence, horseplay.

X. PUNISHMENT 163

Its justification. The motives for punishment — retaliation, expiation, prevention, reformation. Individualization of punishment; term as used by criminologists; another interpretation; when not to punish. Immediate and delayed consequences; advantages of each; age as a factor in the decision; the nature of the offense as a factor; certainty as a factor.

XI. PUNISHMENT — *continued* 178

Undesirable punishments — threats, tasks, detention, taking away earned marks, personal indignities, saturation, the "appropriate punishment," sarcasm and ridicule. Justifiable punishments — isolation, reports to parents, socialization of penalties, deprivation of privilege, restitution, suspension, expulsion. Corporal punishment — justification, methods, and substitutes; appeal to higher authority, and moral suasion; tongue lashing.

XII. Disciplinary Devices 210

Preventive devices founded upon the mode of Absolute Authority — The importance of prevision and provision; the school's conception of the teacher's position; the teacher's benevolent despotism; pedagogical coöperation; doing away with bad influences.

Preventive devices founded upon the mode of Personal Influence — Pleasing the teacher — the emotionalization of ideals; teaching ethics systematically; strengthening the personality of the teacher — the lesson of the parochial school; elements of strength in teachers; the voice; types of teachers who fail.

Preventive devices founded upon the mode of Wholesome Repletion — Three sets of extra-curricular activities; pupil-officers and their duties; recreation time; home time. The fundamental problem of interest; a question-begging substitute; the element of fatigue; reasons for failing interest; lack of interest is no excuse for failure.

XIII. Disciplinary Devices — *continued* 233

Corrective devices founded upon the mode of Absolute Authority — For undue absence from the room; for whispering; library rules as a standard; wilful inattention; impertinence; the complaint book; the pupil's record book; the benefit of system. Rules.

XIV. Disciplinary Devices — *continued* 249

Corrective devices founded upon the mode of Personal Influence — Judge Lindsey's work as an example; reminders; the parole system; motivating good conduct; negative incentives; the appraisal of conduct; trusting pupils; and training the public.

Devices founded upon the appeal to Personal Interest — Prize-giving; a classification of incentives; preëminence, privileges, holidays, excuse from examinations, character-development.

XV. DISCIPLINARY DEVICES — *continued* 268

Devices founded upon the mode of Conscious Social Appeal — Class loyalty and its extension; school character; means of unification. Pupil-government; distinguished from self-government; as an extension of the monitorial system; its good points; cautions with regard to pupil-government; the ideal of service. Morning exercises; an outgrowth of daily work; devotions; general participation.

XVI. THE SUPERVISION OF DISCIPLINE 285

The selection of able teachers, and their improvement in service. The supervisor's duty to weak teachers; analyzing the situation; giving the ideal; finding the cause of trouble; the analysis of motive; first aid to teachers. Strengthening the will; the detection of signs of mischief; the value of good routine; making requirements clear; utilizing the system; utilizing experience. Suggestions for classroom management. The supervisor in the community.

APPENDICES

I. A Classified Bibliography 305

II. Questions for Study 312

III. Blank Forms for Use in Securing and Maintaining Good Order 327

Index 341

INTRODUCTION

THE most important cause of teacher mortality is weakness in discipline. It is responsible for approximately twenty out of every one hundred failures. Although this fact has been recognized for many years there has not heretofore been any attempt to formulate the principles underlying this important phase of a teacher's work. Tradition and the exigencies of the situation have furnished teachers their criteria for disposing of disciplinary cases. The unsupervised application of such criteria has ofttimes been the only way by which young teachers could discover their futility. Although much of our progress in teaching has been made by "cut and try" methods they are, nevertheless, the most expensive methods that teachers can employ. Certainly nothing will pay larger dividends in the field of school economy than an interpretation of the experiences of successful teachers relating to discipline.

There are no changes in the field of education more striking than those that have been occurring in the field of school discipline. At one time there was an effort to adjust disciplinary affairs mathematically; the offender was punished to the extent that he had caused suffering; an equation was struck between the guilt and the suffering, and thus an indemnity was secured for past conduct. An exact agreement between the punishment and the offense is not always obvious, nor can it always be established. Moreover, the view point of this primitive notion of punishment is wrong, for it stresses the crime or offense but overlooks the character of the offender; the attention of the one inflicting the punishment is turned to the past, never to the future.

Somewhat later human ingenuity was exercised to its utmost in devising forms of punishment for intimidating and deterring others; but penalty as a deterrent, in the opinion of the criminologist and penologist of this and other countries and in the opinion of wise teachers, has not succeeded in making good its claim. It is not the laws upon the statute books, the rules of the school, or the occasioned visitation of harsh punishment, but the *certainty* of punishment that deters others from violating the law.

Punishment as a deterrent has been, and no doubt still is, resorted to in some schools. For evidence one only needs to refer to the historic dunce-cap, to making children toe a mark, requiring them to stand upon some unstable elevation, to sit with a pencil or stick beneath their tongues for whispering, or to the public administering of corporal punishment. Fortunately all sane educators are unanimously desirous of getting rid of these inane practices.

There are, however, certain evidences of the inquisitional age that have shown signs of persisting. Worse perhaps than public disgrace, "saturation," and tasks, all of which are mediæval in origin, is the public use of vituperation. Such opprobrious epithets as "loafer" "numskull," "fool," and the like, are more than inelegant; they are calculated to antagonize the child or to break his self-respect.

The chief weakness of the doctrine of repression was that it wholly disregarded the worth of the individual. Repression of dangerous and instinctive evil tendencies, inherited from the race, will always be necessary for the fruition of a beautiful character, but repression as a means of public disgrace will seldom produce positive qualities of character or be successful in preventing others from committing similar offenses.

The inadequacy and barbarity of these earlier methods began to dawn upon sensible people and attention was centered more and more upon the individual. It was recognized that the guilty are not all irredeemable, that reformation, except in extreme cases, is far better than incapacitation. The rehabilitation of the individual became the goal of action.

Naturally it was but a step from this to the notion that the way to prevent trouble is to stop the operation of those causes which permit the origination of the impulse, its gratification, and its spread by contagion of sympathy. This point of view has been responsible partly for the liberalizing of the course of study, the improving of methods of instruction, and the enrichment of the school libraries. Perhaps the recognition of the value and necessity of promoting and supervising the numerous activities that children more or less spontaneously engage in, was the most important outcome of this point of view. The clubs, parties, entertainments, and games of young people, even when not subject to supervision, are powerful disciplinary agencies. For a child to be chosen or not to be chosen, to be invited or not to be invited, to act as a leader or as a follower, teaches him to respect authority. But when under the guidance of a wise teacher, the social activities are made to conform to established usage, the individual engaging in them, learns not only to respect authority but to appreciate certain important refinements of justice. Those teachers who are the successful leaders of their pupils and their communities, consider it a part of their legitimate function to see that the social activities of both are kept upon a high plane and are distinctively educative in character.

Perhaps the best preventive measures in a school are good organization and excellent instruction. Much of the organization of a school may be attended to before the school actually opens. All the more or less mechanical and routine matters, such as the program, the seating of the pupils, the monitorial system, the plan of government, and the like, if properly provided for before the opening day, will serve from the outset as powerful hindrances to questionable conduct. By the "plan of government" I do not have reference to the making of rules. Whenever rules are made uniformity of discipline becomes a principle of the school. This is not always desirable. To have a fixed and definite punishment for all offenders or for all of a kind, will eventually compromise the disciplinarian. There must be moderation in some cases and constraint in others.

Lucidity of instruction, perhaps the greatest preventive agency of bad conduct, depends upon the personal qualities of the teacher, his tact, sympathy, disposition, knowledge, and command of the technique of teaching. The amelioration of discipline is due not only to better teaching but to better buildings, better libraries, and better school equipment. The relation of these factors to the problem under consideration is so remote or indirect or obvious as to make an analytical treatment of them unnecessary.

Any discussion of discipline and its attendant consequences would be inadequate if it did not involve a treatment of that hoary but nevertheless unsolved problem of the relation of authority to obedience, for it must be admitted that both are traditionally sanctioned and indisputably unnecessary in the government of any school. At times the school has attempted to imitate some form of municipal or state government, but there are few successful attempts of record, except where some powerful personality has been back of them. At other times the school has attempted to imitate an ideal home where every phase of conduct is controlled though the manifestations of affection, but obviously such a basis of control is not equally applicable to all grades of the school. The school is not society, nor can it exactly duplicate any institution of society. It is a society and as such has its own strengths and limitations for doing certain kinds of work. Its work depends to some extent upon obedience to authority. Authority, wisely used, inspires confidence in the child and cultivates that feeling of respect which should dominate all well-ordered schools.

Obedience does not destroy independence. It lays the only true foundation for independence. Certainly one of the rights of every child is to have the benefit of the will of his elders concerning things about which he has no will. There is no justification in psychology for the theory that children should be allowed to follow unrestrictedly their impulses and instinctive tendencies and that, if left alone, they will grow up into intelligent, civilized, moral beings. There can be no freedom in any institution except by obedience to those conditions or laws that are necessary for the perpetuity of the institution. The only natural rights any one has are the ones he uses for collective welfare. Freedom in adulthood calls for the exercise of a certain amount of authority in childhood. The great work of civilization and of education has been that of overlaying certain primitive tendencies so that all might more satisfactorily satisfy the conditions necessary for good citizenship, for neighborhood and family life.

Mere spontaneous activity never in itself produced reflective thinking. It is simply overflow, undifferentiated and disorganized. Unless something arises to disturb and check the flow of events, to make us conscious of some maladjustment, to intensify the sensation of strain between what we are and are not but ought to be, no thinking is done. The person who is the victim of a thousand and one chance stimulations of his environment is characterless; but the person who has learned to choose his stimuli or his responses as the result of wise teaching has acquired the fundamentals of character.

As efficiency in language is not measured by the number of mistakes one makes, but by the correctness of his speech, so the test of efficiency in school discipline is not the number of offenses committed but the freedom from offenses.

THE
DISCIPLINE OF THE SCHOOL

CHAPTER I

THE PLACE AND WORK OF THE SCHOOL IN MODERN LIFE

SCHOOLS are so important and universal a factor in modern life that few people think of trying to justify or explain them. Nevertheless, at a time when the most universal and time-honored institutions are called upon by thoughtful people to give a reason for the faith that men have in them, even the school may be put in question. For the reliable intuition of society at large, it is enough that the experience of centuries has established the school as one of the taken-for-granted adjuncts of civilization; but for the pragmatist whose questionings are a saving antidote to the inertia of conservatism, there must be a provable justification for even this well-established institution. That the school has such a justification in its function and its service must be conceded by practically all people, including those who differ most as to just what that function and service should be.

There are three social institutions which take it upon themselves consciously to train children for their work in the world. They are the home, the church, the school. At different times in the world's history each has borne the greater burden of responsibility; at present the school has been rather reluctantly forced to undertake duties either voluntarily given up, or taken by force of circumstance from the other two. In general, the school recognizes two great duties devolving upon it: to prepare children for living, by making them intelligent sharers in the life of their time; and to prepare them for the task of adding something to the sum of human welfare. The first function has for its aim to help the child catch up with the race; the second, to aid the race in its efforts at progress. The school, then, stands with the home and the church as a great unifying force, reconciling the individuals in its care to their environment, and then stimulating them to realize in that environment their individual ideals.

The two functions of the school

But the school was never intended by men to usurp the whole responsibility of the training of the rising generation; nor should it, though never so urgently stimulated by the need of the day, try to attend to The Whole Duty of Man. There is a set of duties which belongs inherently to it, because it can perform these better, more economically, and more skillfully, than can the home or the church. There are other duties which it should leave to the institutions whose proper care they are. Religious training, for instance, is as important as any part of a child's education; and yet it is manifestly impossible for the public schools of a country in which all shades and varieties of religious belief find adherents and protection, to give specific instruction in that subject. At a time when the advocates of a hundred additions to our already crowded courses are urging that the curriculums be extended to include new studies growing from new aims and functions, it is very necessary that practical people keep in mind the natural limitations of the school's duties. Incidentally, no school worthy the support of society can fail to contribute to the ethical, religious, economic and aesthetic education of its pupils; but directly, *its duty is plainly within a wide but not unlimited sphere of intellectual and social training.*

Catching up with the race

The child starts — even the most favored child, with every advantage of inheritance and environment — exactly where the child of the Stone Age started. He is as helpless, as ignorant, and as pliable as the baby in a Paleolithic cave. But when he becomes a man, there will be required of him, if he is to take his place in the world of his day, a variety and scope of information, of skill, and of trained ability of which the cave-man could have no conception. His childhood, however, has not been lengthened in proportion to the greater preparation for maturity necessary for him. Obviously, he must have help in accomplishing so great a task. He is to learn, by the time he is grown and ready to do a man's part, a sufficiently large proportion of all that men have learned since time began, to enable him to understand the life of his own day and to enter into it intelligently. Much of this learning he acquires unconsciously, absorbing incidentally from his environment and his companions; but a great body of the required training is such that only organized, well-planned, and directed instruction can impart. Some standard of preparation, some body of information upon which men agree as most necessary for the children of any given age, must be adopted. Curriculums are not thoughtlessly or arbitrarily fixed by chance authorities. Despite the representations of some would-be reformers engaged chiefly in tearing down what has been accomplished, it is true that no chance pedagogical despot ever laid down courses of study for the torture of future generations. Accepted subjects are those which an instinctive feeling for what children need for their work makes traditional. They have the inertia of all accepted things, however; they follow after the real needs of their era oftener than they anticipate them. But, with the new thoughtfulness and conscientiousness which is taking the place of tradition in education, we are approximating the ideal of the first great function of the school: we are preparing the child to take his place in his age. We are succeeding fairly well in putting him in possession of the great typical experiences of the race. The first function of the school then is to furnish a short-cut to the net result of the world's long, hard road to knowledge. It is to give him an epitome of the progressive experience of the race.

The school's first function

Preparing to serve the race

The second function of the school is to make its pupils socially serviceable. Since there are other institutions which properly assume part of the responsibility, the school may specialize here, undertaking the more intellectual side of the required training, while the home and the church work especially with the more personal of the social relationships, religion, and the finer points of culture. A hard and fast limitation to the work of any one institution is no more possible than the division of the child's identity into separate bundles of faculties or characteristics. But, in general, it may be said that society at large, which authorizes and furnishes the school as an economical way of paying part of its debt to the oncoming generation, expects the school to fit children for social efficiency by

What is expected of the school

1. Furnishing them the information that will enable them to interpret the world about them.
2. Teaching them a set of skills which they will need in social intercourse — such as reading, writing, etc.
3. Training in appreciation.
4. Fitting them for social service by familiarizing them with socially serviceable methods of work, and by building up those prejudices, attitudes, and ideals that give the proper bias for such service.

To these, popular opinion has lately added a fifth: Teaching them a set of skills which will give them economic independence.

The school has been established and is supported by society especially for the foregoing purposes, and is justified because it has at least partially fulfilled them. It seems to be entering upon a period of much more efficient helpfulness than it has ever given, but its enlarged usefulness lies in a fuller realization of its purposes, rather than in an extension of these purposes. It can never take the place of other institutions, and no permanent good is to be realized from shifting to the school, at a time when it is straining every nerve to satisfy the legitimate demands of society, the real work of home, church, or government.

The school in its relations to other institutions

It is necessary for our study of the place and part of the school in modern life, to consider beside its place and function, its relations to the other controlling influences in the child's environment. It should form part of an articulated and harmonious unity of constructive forces, which combine to furnish the necessary varied and correlated stimuli to wholesome and all-round development. In the nature of things it is obvious that the school bears a more or less fixed and definite relation to the state, to the parents of the children it trains, to the children themselves, and to several social institutions, notably the home and the church and those modern would-be substitutes for both home and church which have to some extent taken over their work and responsibilities. An inquiry into the nature of these relations is pertinent to our subject, for only by understanding with some degree of exactness just where it stands as a force in the world, can we gauge the nature and extent of the school's authority — the point upon which depends the whole question of school discipline.

The school and the state

The state is an economical device by which men unite to effect certain desirable ends which no one man could secure for himself. It is first protective and afterward advantage-seeking. As an organization seeking the advantage of its members, it has taken over the business of formal education from the home, which yields its claim to control readily because the state can do the work more effectively and more economically. The state has created a special department, with its own revenues, equipment, and officers, to attend to this work; and we call this department of the state the School System. Properly speaking, the public school is not a separate institution, as is the church in the United States. It is a part of the state, maintained, as are laws, courts, postoffices, for the protection and service of the people.[1]

A social institution

It is imperfect and faulty in its organization and requirements, as are the laws; but such as it is, it represents the will of the society which has created it, and demands the support of all citizens. It is controlled in our country by the various state governments, or the lesser units to which they delegate this function — to towns, cities, counties and school districts. The teachers, principals, and superintendents are rarely officers in a technical sense, being employed under contract instead of being elected. They are obliged to serve, as all officers do, subject to laws and regulations, and also to enforce all laws and regulations that pertain to their work and positions. Their relation to their schools is a legal one, and the schools themselves are legally controlled.[2] The status of the school as a part of the state will often be referred to in these pages, as its right to the authority it claims is based upon this relation.

Parents and the school

The school does not derive its authority from the parents of the children who attend, as the popular phrase *in loco parentis* has led many to suppose, but from the whole body of organized society. Therefore the parents of children have no inherent right whatever to dictate to the school what its methods shall be. Teachers are responsible, not to the parents of their pupils, but directly to the state, which is society's representative power. Since the state has, in establishing the school and assigning to it certain duties, taken from parents the responsibility of furnishing their children the training which the school offers, the state assumes also the dictation of means and methods. The only way in which a parent can logically change school policies is to act through the state. Practically, of course, a hundred considerations of interest, of expedition, of friendly coöperation and community of ends, operate to bridge this red-tape gulf of the state that lies between teachers and parents. For although as an element in the whole fabric of social organization, the state stands between parent and school, as an element in the training of citizens the school stands between parent and state, an institution for protection and development, combining the motives of love and justice. But in case of appeal to ultimate authority, and as a basis for formulating school policies, every teacher should remember that authority is of the state, and that the policies used in schools are not subject to parental veto or parental control.[1] The logical recourse of a parent who objects to the manner in which the school furnishes his child with the training that the state requires, is to remove

---

[1] Felix Adler, *The Moral Instruction of Children*, N.Y., 1902, page 11. Woodrow Wilson, *The State*, Boston, 1904, page 638.

[2] A. C. Perry, *The Management of a City School*, pages 25–34.

Parental interference

---

[1] This principle is commonly recognized in any case of disagreement where the matter at issue is referred to the local school board for adjustment. The result is often so unjust in its operation as to afford the best possible argument for the substitution of a larger political unit in the management of school affairs. Political or family influence has had a notoriously demoralizing influence in the local management of school matters in the United States.

him from school and furnish that training from his private means. But the relations of parent and child, and teacher and pupil, have so much in common that a meeting-ground of friendly coöperation is rarely hard to find. The opinionated parent is not half the obstacle, in fact, that the indifferent parent is, although the opinionated parent is usually harder to reform. Most teachers agree that the securing of parental coöperation is one of the most difficult of their problems. Parents' Clubs and Mothers' Clubs enable the teacher to secure reënforcement at home for his efforts at school, and to reënforce at school what may be attempted at home. An idealist from Mars, becoming acquainted with our social institutions, might suppose that the parents of a given community, upon surrendering their children to a public institution for that training which Nature and society originally required of them,[1] would voluntarily organize a supervisory and coöperative association, with a view to keeping tab on all the methods used and all the results obtained. He would be surprised to learn that such organizations spring, not from the efforts of parents but from the efforts of teachers, and that parents must usually be begged, cajoled, and preached at to make them attend. It is among teachers as a body, rather than among parents, that there exists a

Interesting the parents

---

[1] But see A. J. Todd, *The Primitive Family as an Educative Agency*. The author says that the family is a developed institution and that society from the first took the initiative in training children. Homes have not degenerated of late years, but among a majority of the human race have never developed to the point considered typical by the writers of the past. The theory is interesting and not unsupported by evidence.

compelling sense of responsibility toward the next generation.

The school must take the initiative, then, in establishing the close bond that should exist between it and the parents of its pupils. It will find a fairly ready response wherever great wealth or great poverty do not dull the sense of parental responsibility or prevent its exercise. The end for which both are working should be kept constantly in evidence, not only because it furnishes the basis for coöperation, but because parents so seldom realize its full significance, and need to have their own part of the child's training consciously squared to it.

The school and the child

The school exercises a benevolent despotism toward its pupils. Each child is placed in it to perform its bidding implicitly, though not unquestioningly. It is a world in itself, which articulates with several other worlds in which he moves and to which he belongs, and it is subject to a great power called the state, which represents the power and will of the greatest world of all, which is society. This world of the school is organized by society for the benefit of children, that they may be able to benefit society in turn, and be themselves the happier for what they learn there. The teachers are in the school for the purpose of helping them to become intelligent, happy, helpful. All that makes boys and girls intelligent, happy, and helpful in the school is right, and therefore permissible. When children act in a way that defeats the purpose of the school, and so harm themselves, the teacher, who represents the state, which represents society, must correct them, and keep them from repeating the offense. He has a perfect right to do so, because no one person can be permitted to clog the wheels of progress, to defeat the good purposes of society.

So soon as children can be trusted to carry on their part of society's great work without being watched and without fail, they have reached the responsible estate of grown people and can govern themselves. Part of the school's work is to help them to reach this stage as soon as possible.

The school and the church

It were beside the point and superfluous to try to make clear the relations of morality to religion. We live in a land whose dominant religion offers no teaching that conflicts with the finest ethical code yet devised; indeed, the highest word we have to say of such a code is that it is one of practical Christianity. The schools are for obvious reasons not to teach religion; but they are just as obviously bound to inculcate, directly and indirectly, the principles of morality. The relation of the school to the church, in all its various branches and divisions, is an absolutely unofficial one, and can never, while American principles are recognized and supported, be otherwise. No teacher who uses his influences for or against any denomination or cult, has a defensible place in the American school system. But it is the place of the school to rationalize moral instruction, as it is the office of the church to give to moral instruction the motive force of high emotional appeal. Morality appears reasonable and profitable to the child who has been rightly instructed at school; it is, for the child who has had the right kind of religious instruction, an obligation enforced by the deepest feelings of reverence, gratitude, and

The school and the church are complementary

love. The school's duty, moreover, is to clarify man's relation to man; the church's, man's duty to God. As the two phases of duty can not conflict, and as all interpretations of Christianity are supposed to harmonize with fundamental ethics, the school may be considered the ally of all the branches of the church, supplying that rational basis for moral judgments which every thinking human being demands at one time or another. Indeed, the very efficacy and dependability of religion is sometimes contingent on just the sort of rationalized prejudice which the school can and does impart to its pupils. The practical value of moral instruction, on the other hand, is immensely increased by the emotionalization of religious conviction and aspiration. Capable of so immensely strengthening the work, each of the other, it is important that teacher and priest, as well as the laymen of both institutions, use all possible means of establishing and keeping up this friendly coöperation of the two great instructive forces of modern times.

SUMMARY

The school is delegated by the state to prepare children for efficient living and service. Other phases of this preparation are assumed by the home and the church, but it is the sense of society that the state, through its schools, can best attend to the training of mind and hand. Since all the forces which go to develop a whole man or woman must work simultaneously and should work harmoniously, it is very important that the school be in close touch and friendly relations with state, home, church, and all the institutions and forces which influence childhood.

CHAPTER II

THE MODES OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

All the training which society gives to individuals, which helps them better to control their powers, may be called disciplinary. This disciplinary control springs from a variety of relationships and principles, which may be divided for the sake of convenience into five general classes, giving rise to five types or modes of government. While each mode is distinct in its origins, nature, and results, few concrete instances of school government can be classed exactly with any one mode, owing to the complex nature of schoolroom life and aims. In actual practice the modes overlap, merging imperceptibly or passing sharply one into another. They represent nodal points in methods of school management, however; they are types of the means used to secure and keep good order and a good spirit in a schoolroom. They predominate at various periods in the development of any one child; they are variously emphasized by different teachers, communities, and ages; they supplement and strengthen one another in a thousand ways. Through all their elaborate inter-relations, however, the fundamental differences in these five modes remain unchanged. In the following discussion they are treated approximately in the order of their historical development, and in the reverse order of their probable worth in bringing about ideal school conditions.

Five fundamental modes

I. The Mode of Absolute Authority

The natural origin of school authority

Pedagogy in its simplest form is the oldest science practiced by man. The man who mastered the first rude art taught it to his children and his neighbors, and because he knew more than they, found himself in a position of authority among them. Greatest of all men was Prometheus; and every unknown fire-bringer, with his circle of learners about him, shared his glory and his penalty. The authority of the teacher usually coincided with the paternal prerogatives, and was so the more easily established. When schools were established, the authority of the teacher-father carried over naturally into the institution. No one reasoned why; it was a matter of tradition and development, an inevitable part of the sequence of events, a concession to the eternal fitness of things. That the teacher stands in the place of the parent has been one maxim universally accepted; and the nature and workings of the teacher's authority have shown an interesting tendency to imitate the methods of control in vogue in the home. The era of stern discipline and severe corporal punishment in both was coëval; and when parental severity was relaxed in favor of more gentle means, the school was forced to fall into line, and somewhat reluctantly to concede its right to paddle and whip.

The mode of control by appeal to its absolute authority is, then, the school's oldest, simplest, and most direct of all ways of securing good order. Combined with the type which rests its power on the personal

THE KNOWLEDGE OF ABSOLUTE AUTHORITY

appeal of the teacher to the child, it is the mode which has been consciously employed until very modern times.

Nor is it by any means an outworn and discarded type of school government. Not only in practice but in theory, it rests upon a justification so sound that it will never become obsolete. Its acknowledged existence and righteousness gives dignity and stability to all other forms of control. As a starting point if possible, as an ultimate appeal if necessary, the teacher's authoritative control of the situation, as society's rightful representative, makes his position tenable. He controls his domain — within the reasonable limits set by custom and public opinion — as rightfully as other civil officers execute the statute law.

Inherent weakness of this mode

That this mode is to be abandoned in favor of others when possible, then, is not because it rests upon any untenable principle, not because it is inherently unjust or harmful. It is because it is not the mode which is best calculated to teach pupils to be self-governing, and so to order their conduct that it gives the best service to society. The use of authority is at best society's necessary temporary expedient, when it finds itself confronted with many classes of people whose wishes do not conform to the general good. So the teacher's authority is to be exercised as a concession to actual conditions, keeping always in mind the possibility of attaining an ideal condition in which it will not be needed. Its use may well be limited to the following cases:

1. When pupils are not sufficiently advanced for the use of other modes.

4

2. When the need of quick action and speedy and clear-cut decision preclude the slower methods.
3. When the use of authority will have a good effect upon public opinion.
4. In cases of anarchy, with those who deny and defy authority. An actual demonstration of the superiority of authorized and organized power over the will of the individual is usually that power's best argument. There are few who do not recall the regenerating effects of a sound whipping upon some school bully who thought the teacher didn't dare.

With whom to use this mode

The pupils with whom it is advisable to use this mode may be divided into three classses—the very young, the socially untrained, and the abnormal. The reason for its use with the very young is obvious enough. Since habit-forming is the type of educational training for them (the period of rationalization not having arrived), and since curiosity usually gives a sufficient impetus for new activities, constant and detailed direction is needed. Very little people must simply be told what to do, and punished in some reasonable way for not obeying, until the habit of obedience becomes fixed and its discretion clear. Self-direction comes naturally with the acquiring of fundamental habits and the ability to think, and so other modes normally supplant that of absolute authority as the child grows older. But little children must learn that some things are wrong and must not be done, or being done bring swift and sure punishment. "The first thing the child has to learn about this matter," says the philosopher of The Breakfast Table, "is that lying is unprofitable—

afterwards that it is against the peace and dignity of the universe."

The socially untrained

Perhaps the most appalling single condition facing American teachers in these days is the lack of home training shown everywhere. As one function after another, formerly vested in the home, is yielded up by that emancipated institution, the school is urged

> Once more into the breach, kind friends!

to take up the neglected duty. The German teacher finds his beginner already grounded in a deep respect for authority, a fixed habit of implicit obedience, and a growing consideration for others. With this foundation laid, the superstructure of formal training is easily and solidly built. American teachers, especially in strictly American communities, must often lay this foundation themselves. They receive year after year sets of pupils who are not only socially untrained,[1] but whose lack of social training extends, so far as the home is concerned, throughout childhood and into maturity. It is trite and profitless to remark upon the decay of family authority — of which, as has been said, "there is as much as ever, but it has changed hands." It is absolutely necessary, however, that we recognize this condition and its effect upon the discipline of our schools. It interferes seriously with their efficiency by forcing teachers to expend time and energy in giving their pupils a training which they might reasonably expect them to have received from their parents.

---

[1] The term "social training" is a somewhat vague one, but is used here to mean that training which makes consideration for others habitual, and which teaches individuals to plan their lives with reference to the good of society.

Socially untrained pupils, of whatever age, are in the same stage of development as the kindergarten pupil or the first-grader, and must be led through submission to authority, and personal influence, and wholesome interests in auxiliary activities, to the point at which the school appeal outweighs the personal one.

The misuse of freedom

Among the socially untrained none are more given to misunderstanding and misusing liberty, than those from whom it has been long and unjustly withheld. Freedom granted to men who have been long oppressed is especially likely to degenerate into license. The children of European immigrants escaping from long suppression and persecution in their own land, and the children who are cuffed into scared inactivity at home, are often children who take advantage of every relaxation of authority, of every freedom from oversight and direction. They do not know how to use freedom with temperance, but are intoxicated with it to the point of lawlessness. They confuse liberty with license in a way that is natural and perhaps excusable, but it is the greatest of all mistakes to allow them to persist in this misunderstanding. Until they have learned self-control, until they have learned that they belong to an organic whole whose members are interdependent, and in which injury is reflexive, they can not be trusted with much personal liberty. Even those children whose parents enjoy and understand the true uses of liberty, those who may reasonably be expected to absorb from their environment the knowledge of reasonable limits and restraints to personal freedom, must be led carefully from one exercise of self-direction to another. For those unfortunates who can have no real conception of the kind of freedom which insures the rights of all, there must be much restraint before the difference between liberty and license is plain. This problem of the alien and of the repressed child is especially important in great cities, and furnishes a chief reason for retaining there, unimpaired, conservative ideas of the absolute authority of the teacher.

Authority for the abnormal

Teachers recognize two types of pupils with whom the usual means fail of usual results. These are constitutional and temporary abnormals. Markedly abnormal pupils have properly no place in the ordinary public school, but while our eleemosynary systems remain imperfect and inadequate for our needs, they will continue to complicate the teaching problem. The use of simple and direct authority as the quickest and most effective way of securing results is usually justifiable when such pupils are admitted to public schools. It is not right to take from the normal pupils in the school, the time necessary for dealing with these cases in the proper way. Every effort should be taken to have them removed to the special institutions where they belong; failing that, it is clearly not the duty of public school teachers to expend upon them more time than they are fairly entitled to, more than would be needed by normal children, and more than others receive. The great aim of the school is to improve the race, to better society; the palliation of the mistakes and blunders of the ignorant or the vicious is a secondary matter. The teacher should expend his effort where it will pay. What, then, may be expected from public school teachers entrusted with the training of subnormal or abnormal children? If they be so trained that they can from habit follow direction, if their powers be turned into some channel which is at least harmless, and helpful if possible, about as much has been accomplished as can be done, and as much as can be expected without expert treatment.

An emergency method

The temporarily abnormal are to be found at times in every schoolroom. They are the pupils who, usually tractable and amenable to all good influences, become unmanageable because of some passing circumstance. The power of a sudden infatuation, of ill-health, of any absorbing interest, may make a temporary anarchist of the schoolroom's most law-abiding citizen, by overmastering all his customary standards and compelling absolute obedience to its demands. At such times the incentives to social conduct fall to lowest ebb, and the most generously disposed child becomes a thorough and ruthless egoist. Putting aside the higher modes which usually prove efficient, his teacher may find it necessary to exercise his bare authority in such a crisis.

Imposed authority passes into voluntarily accepted authority

As in the case of control through personal influence, the control of absolute authority should definitely appoint its successor. Good citizens submit to law because they believe in its righteousness, and, in a democracy, because they realize that it is made by themselves and their neighbors, who are in turn to benefit by it. Good citizens in a school, in like manner, conform to its customs, observe its limitations, and help with its machinery, because they know that machinery to be devised for their own good. The point of accomplishment in the making of a good citizen-pupil is that at which he begins to coöperate with, where formerly he submitted to the imposed authority of, the teacher. Authority is then no longer imposed, but is accepted voluntarily. This point comes to some children very early, and to others late in their school career or not at all. As children are poor generalizers, it needs sometimes to be learned specifically many times before it becomes a principle for general application. Even then, tradition and habit may produce some surprising cases of defiance of law.

A changed attitude

II. The Mode of Appeal to Personal Interest

Following the instinctive obedience to parental authority and its substitutes, and closely allied to that first allegiance, comes the selfish motive for conduct. At first the desire for self-gratification leads usually to defiance of authority, for children see the immediate outcome and strive for it. As the power of thinking develops, however, and reasoning gives them an insight into final gains and losses, children learn to deny themselves an immediate gratification for an ultimate gain. When this point in development has been reached, it is possible to appeal to the child's sense of self-interest. He begins to do things because he knows it is good for him — either because he reaps some reward that is pleasant, or because he has faith that a given course will bring him pleasure in the future, as some one has told him it will. He learns to balance values, and to choose the one which his training and disposition hold most worth while.

The hope of rewards

There is one motive which may be used at all ages, although it is probably most active and potent during adolescence. It may be endlessly varied and generalized. This motive is the hope of reward, the aim of self-improvement or gratification. There exists a great and mistaken prejudice against it, however, which has weakened the work of countless conscientious teachers, who fear that they encourage selfishness and love of personal gain in emphasizing the old and universal law that good begets good, and that virtue brings a reward beside its recognition of itself. Surely the reward in kind of good and evil is one principle that may safely be abstracted from human experience, and is safely taught to the young. Indeed, its apparent contradictions form one of the most prolific of all sources for inquiry into fundamentals, and consequent establishing of truths that do not appear superficially. No better, no more universal, varied, and obvious illustrations of the complexity of life, of the unity of the social fabric, or of the far-reaching effects of every human act, can possibly exist than the answers to the questions that arise daily in every home and schoolroom concerning the truth of this law. Every illustration of its application in their own lives, tends to strengthen a faith in its universality and dependableness, which must function constantly and healthfully in controlling conduct, both in the school and outside and beyond it.

A fear that is a fallacy

Provided care is taken to call attention to the fact that rewards are sometimes long delayed, diffused, or subjective in character, the use of the immediate and concrete reward is harmless and commendable. There is nothing in the rewarding of a deserved honor that does harm, if the nature of the reward is such as to be unobjectionable. It is the failure to recognize and emphasize the unseen rewards that holds danger; the ignoring of that compensation to virtue which is real but indirect, sure but perhaps long delayed. *Every time a child receives a recognized reward for doing right, his faith in the paying qualities of goodness is increased.* And this faith in the absolute equity of life's give-and-take, in the indestructibility of the moral law, is not the sordid and unworthy thing that many teachers are disposed to call it. All our faith in the ultimate justice of human events and in the goodness of God is bound up in it; why should we blindly deny it to children? The question-begging injunction to "do right because it is right" has, in an effort to establish an impracticable loyalty to a truth too abstract for trained thinkers to comprehend, done incalculable harm to any number of inquiring young people.

MAKE GOODNESS PAY!

Punishment of evil

Conversely, the punishment of evil as an unescapable aftermath can not be too much emphasized. Here, owing to the stern customs of our ancestors and the rigorous traditions of the schoolroom, there is not the same prejudice to be overcome as exists with regard to the careful reward of well-doing. Children expect to be punished if they do wrong at school; teachers expect to mete out justice, or at least retribution, to sinners.

Two ideas of self-interest

This sense of self-interest is an immensely valuable asset to the teacher. It may be used also in a way to work great harm to pupils, if selfish ends are justified in the incentives held out to children. If the ends represented as desirable are such as build up fine ideals, the method of appeal to self-interest is justifiable. If material rewards are over-emphasized (as, for example, they have been in the popular statistics showing the money value of honesty and good character and education), or preëminence is held up as a thing to be striven for, the results will be deplorable. For instance, to urge a child to study that he may win a prize or stand first in his class is to appeal to instincts that need inhibition rather than encouragement; but to urge him to study that he may become a useful man, a helpful and noble citizen, is to encourage the sort of ambition that children ought to have. The mode is the same in both instances, but the ideals differ fundamentally.

The subjective reward

That is to say, that while there are material and immediate rewards for doing right, which we should not deny nor conceal, nor withhold unless they are really harmful, there are subjective rewards which are of far more value and permanence. These subjective rewards are the ones which should be constantly emphasized as the rewards worth most earnest effort, and the ones most surely to be received. At the same time, there is no inherent wrong in the statement of the law that right brings reward and wrong incurs punishment in some form, inevitably.

A mode for adolescents

As children grow older, and plan their lives more consciously, this mode of control becomes more important. Combined with that of personal influence, it may be instrumental in changing the whole course of conduct of a thoughtless or antagonistic pupil. Its most powerful allies are the imagination and the idealizing qualities that are strong in youth. To arouse an indifferent pupil from his narrow absorption in what he is and enjoys, to a conception of what he may become and accomplish — that is the miracle that, once performed, may readily change him into an alert, interested person with a motive for working. In adolescence, when imagination is alive, it means much to have presented the material that may furnish a vision of the future. A pitifully large number of men and women lead spiritless, humdrum lives, because no vision of the possibility of life came to them in the days when they might have gone on to its realization. No inspiring speaker, no book written from a great heart, no trip from the sheltered and quiet home into the big world of action and achievement, no picture or song or heroic act, fired the ready soul at the critical time to set a goal for itself that would make all effort and sacrifice worth while.

As it affects curriculums

A realization of the responsibility of the school in this matter is showing itself in the movement for vocational guidance. Skillful teachers who understand the possibilities of their incomparable calling have long utilized it, directly for the final gain of their charges, indirectly for the improvement of school order. It furnishes an incentive of high order if the right ideals of accomplishment are united with it, and combined with the mode of appeal to social responsibility makes the best basis for motivation. Translated into concrete terms for pupils, it offers these aims for good conduct:

FIVE AIMS

a. The development of a good brain, capable of doing the thinking that may be required of it.

b. The development of skill of hand and quickness of eye.

c. The ability to make a good living, growing out of the first two.

d. The ability to appreciate fine and beautiful things.

e. A strong and noble character.

f. The ability to serve one's generation well.

The choice of studies

If this all-round aim be kept before both students and teachers, it means that they will choose, in planning courses of study, a variety of exercises and activities, not one narrow set of studies. There will be some of subjects requiring earnest application and real thought, for even if such do not develop a general intellectual facility, they at least prove ability for hard work and clear thinking. There will be no neglect of manual training; writing, drawing, the playing of some musical instrument, carpentering, ceramics, sewing, cooking, or metal work — a fair degree of skill in several of these the all-round man or woman has.

Mental power and physical skill combine to make men and women economically independent, but that is not all they need. The fatal fallacy of the trade school lies in its neglect of the heart, out of which are the issues of life. The failing of the conventional school curriculum is that it trains mind and heart to the appreciation of good things which mind and hand may not be able to furnish. The boy or girl with an eye to his own interest, therefore, will plan to include in his course of study much that will develop taste, appreciation, and hunger for fine and beautiful things. He will wish to learn something of social service, of the ways in which he may help his generation to do its work. Above all, he will include as much of ethical culture of a formal kind as may be, and keep mind and heart awake for the incidental inspiration that comes to the watchful.

The choice of conduct

It is in this last choice that the bearing of conscious self-interest upon conduct and discipline appears. The youth who sincerely wishes to make himself as noble as he can, must understand that he must choose, not once but time after time, the best response to the situations that present themselves. He must know that the only assurance he can have that, when a great temptation to do wrong comes to him, he will resist it, is that he has habitually resisted a thousand little temptations to dishonesty, discourtesy, inattention, laziness, familiarity, intemperance, impertinence. He must understand that much of his future happiness or misery depends upon his conscious choice of immediate or ultimate ends, of present fun that is without the law or within it. Good disciplinarians learn early to impress the duty of the right choice upon students by showing them the inexorable laws of cause and effect.

The danger of the mode

There is a danger, it is true, in using this mode of appeal to self-interest. It is that boys and girls may acquire an idea that virtue exists mainly for its rewards. They are good then for revenue only, and feel justified in forsaking what is right if the promised rewards are not forthcoming, or if they see law-breakers enjoying prosperity and evident happiness. There is a possibility that our ethical training may degenerate into some such bargain with The Powers as the Romans had in their state worship. It may become a matter of bargain and barter, unless personal ideals of the highest nature animate it and dominate it. Religion furnishes the surest antidote to this tendency, but religion is a thing that may not be taught in public schools. Next best are the ideals of personal honor that the greatest literature and the greatest historical characters give. To gain, after years of effort, the purity of Arthur and the devotion of Antigone, the patriotism of William the Silent, the self-mastery of Jean Valjean, is the goal which, kept steadily before their eyes, will give to our youth the strength to choose to do what is right.

Ideals for effort

III. THE MODE OF CONTROL THROUGH PERSONAL INFLUENCE

In its total power through the formative period of the life of a child, consciously exercised personal influence ranks among the first of the elements in education. All good teachers wish to possess personal influence over their pupils; there are frequent occasions when it is necessary to exercise it. Many teachers abuse it ignorantly, or fail to use it to the highest and most permanent ends. It is a primitive and a dangerous method of control, a universal and wonderfully potent one, and one capable of the best possible use.

Its danger lies in the temptation to the teacher to magnify his own power through its exercise, and to fail to appeal to the social consciousness of his pupils. Vanity is a failing from which teachers are not exempt; indeed, the continued preëminence which schoolroom experience gives to the teacher, is liable to develop any latent tendency to undue self-esteem which he may possess. Few human beings are above appreciating the flattery of those who order their conduct to please them. In almost any school building are to be found teachers who are not averse to having people know that pupils who later gave trouble to other teachers, were in their grades tractable and industrious. They were good for *them* — owing, usually, to some charm of manner, personal appearance, or trick of amusement, such as captivate the easily aroused admiration of childhood. The use of such personal assets in the schoolroom as an initial means of securing results is wholly legitimate; but to continue to build on so narrow a foundation is a fatal mistake.

Use and exercise of personal influence

The use of personal influence is to be nicely differentiated from its unconscious and incidental exercise, which in itself forms one of the great elements in schoolroom control. The mode of control through conscious personal influence is justifiable in the teaching of young children, with whom it must be employed constantly, and with older children who have not been aroused to a consciousness of their duty toward others, nor received a sufficient emotional impulse to insure a response. Wherever, in fact, the modes of government by substitution and appeal to social consciousness are impracticable, and the mode of authoritative control is not necessary, there the personal influence of the teacher may advantageously be used. The strength of its appeal lies in an emotional connotation, usually very wholesome, but applicable only to the case and persons in point. Herein lies the essential weakness of this mode of control. In itself it establishes no ideal and no habit which functions outside the schoolroom, or in similar situations in other schoolrooms where a different teacher is in control.

The process of socialization

But it is possible so to merge the individual into the social appeal, so to broaden the loyalty which urges the sought-for judgment, that this method becomes a powerful help in establishing the ultimate mode of self-government through motives induced by social consciousness. It shares this preparatory function with the still older mode of appeal to bare authority, or to the force with which that authority is armed. It is not so ultimate, so ideal a method, but it may be used for entirely righteous ends and in the interests of the ideal and ultimate method.

Generalization

The process of generalization in the mind of the pupil is not necessarily a conscious one. From the motive of doing right to please his teacher, or his mother, or his father, he may be led easily and quickly to wish to do right to please his schoolmates as a body. Much is being done in kindergartens and primary schools, especially in games and exercises devised for the purpose, to develop a recognition of the corporate nature of the school; and the child so trained, even at the period when the personal influence of the teacher is strongest, is beginning to put the needs of society above his own pleasure or that of his personal friends.

At a period a little later, especially in the upper intermediate and grammar grades, loyalty to a "crowd" or "gang" often supplants the child's first loyalty to mother or teacher. The problem here is a harder one, for while the personal influence of mothers and teachers is usually exercised in the interests of good school government, that of school children's cliques is often directly adverse to it. Sometimes the fervid devotion is to a single chum or to a trio or quartet. In any case, the problem is not to do away with the relationship which has captured the child's inherent capacity for devotion, but to transform its personal influence into a wholesome and healthful one. President Diaz, organizing his efficient *rurales* from the idle desperadoes of his Mexican cities; Mr. George, teaching the waifs of New York City to be good citizens at Freeville; Sir George Baden-Powell with his Boy Scouts — all have recognized the instinctive nature of crowd-loyalty and its possibilities. To substitute in the clique interests and ideals that shall be constructive and not destructive is often a really Herculean task, for it amounts to remaking a whole set of social ideas. It often involves the education of the parents and the community as well as the group of children directly involved.

In the high school

In the high school the situation is always a complicated one. To the old loyalties to teachers and cliques are added new ones to any number of organizations, to chums and sweethearts, and even to adored authors, public characters, and "causes." To make these varied allegiances and influences potent for good school government is a complicated task, the more so because adolescence is inclined to be reticent with regard to the influences which are at the time most powerful. Some personal influences are so harmful that no ingenuity can devise a means of turning them to good account. They must simply be inhibited if possible. Others, long regarded as evil, are now coming to be recognized as natural and good, but needing direction and training.

But for practical purposes, that influence which still remains in the high school of most use to the teachers in securing good order, is the teacher's own, consciously and unconsciously exercised. The beautiful idealism of youth, that sees so often in a teacher the inspiring personality which it is a joy to follow, lends itself with equal pleasure to the joy of pleasing so charming a mentor. Thousands of boys and girls in American high schools meet for the first time in a teacher a person of refinement, of intellectual leadership, even of attractive personal appearance. These qualities open to the eager search of youth a new world of beauty and worth, and the directing deity has but to point the way and the enamored discoverer follows. Even where poverty and ignorance do not give so pathetic a background to these personal enthusiasms of pupils for teachers, they are among the strongest of all influences upon adolescents.

An example The writer recalls one gracious white-haired lady, for years principal of the high school in a town of the Middle West, whose personal influence over two generations of boys and girls unquestionably did more than anything else, not only to fix standards of conduct in the high school, but to sound the social keynote of that town. Her ideas of good taste, courtesy, and honor moulded the public opinion and the customs of her high school to such an extent, that during her régime there was never any serious trouble on account of disorder. She failed, however, just where a teacher of strong personality is liable to fail — in generalization. The younger, less experienced, and less influential principals who succeeded her had a most unhappy experience with a set of young people who had been been kept too strictly in moral leading strings. Without the strong and wise personal guidance and control to which they were used, they "ran wild." Appeal to school loyalty was useless; no such sentiment existed. They had been brought up, first by their parents, then by the principal herself, in the nurture and admonition of a personal loyalty to a woman whose word was admittedly final. No person new to the community could possibly have had her personal hold upon pupils and parents. Two principals failed in that high school before a man was found with sufficient personal charm to manage things in the accustomed way. At present the school is on its old footing, with a calm and unruffled exterior, and with an inner life fully as free from the disturbing commotion of growth. When the fortuitous circumstance of a principal with a winning personality is no longer responsible for its smooth-running, the school will "go to pieces" again. Its peace and order and industry are founded upon no stable principle, its students base their law-abiding on no conscious loyalty to an institution or to the will of society at large, which made the institution.

To effect the transfer of allegiance from the teacher to the comparatively abstract conception of the good of the school, or even to the pupil's own future, is no easy process. It is, moreover, one requiring some self-abnegation. It involves a very old kind of sacrifice, in which individual preëminence is given up to an ultimate social gain. And it is a sad fact that teachers are found in our schools who deliberately and selfishly cultivate personal devotion in their pupils, making no effort whatever to divert it from themselves to more general channels.[1]

The period of adolescence is one which especially demands wise personal guidance. "To neglect the child at this time," said Plutarch long ago, "unbars the doors to vice." Sympathy and encouragement, restraint and guidance, must be offered tactfully and administered skillfully. Boys need men teachers of good sense and honor; girls require women teachers who understand them, and who are personally attractive enough to win their confidence. One sincere friendship for a wise teacher, emotionalized by admiration to the point where the approval of the beloved guide is worth every effort, will do more to establish good habits and inspire high ideals than all the lectures, self-government schemes, good literature, and speech-making that the best high school can give.

---

[1] This remark applies only to personal devotion functioning as a motive in promoting right conduct in school. Of course there can be no possible condemnation for the closest personal friendship between teachers and pupils.

CHAPTER III

THE MODES OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT (Continued)

IV. THE MODE OF WHOLESOME REPLETION

The impenetrability of attention

IT is said of General Arney, a leader in the movement for the relief of Kansas in the '50's, and later governor of Oklahoma, that he could write two letters simultaneously, one with each hand, and carry on an animated conversation at the same time. Such instances of the division of attention always arouse incredulity before, and wondering admiration after, their verification. They occur rarely, even among the most gifted and versatile thinkers. Young children, as well as the great majority of adults, can give attention to but one thing at a time. The attention of children is easily diverted, and the rapidity with which it changes may give a false appearance of its simultaneous direction toward several different interests. But stimuli act in succession, and the constant choice between them gives to the judgment its greatest exercise and means of development.

The impenetrability of interest

This incompatibility of directed attentions, which may be called — to borrow a term from Physics — the Impenetrability of Attention, gives rise to the corollary of the Impenetrability of Interest. One interest at a time holds the exclusive attention of the simple, directly-working mind of a child. To train the child so that these periods of exclusive attention shall be long enough to give appreciable results, is one of the chief aims of imposed disciplinary activities. But the initial and fundamental condition is not the result of training; it is an inherent psychological characteristic. It gives to the teacher of children one of the principal means of directing the development of good habits, since it is possible to make desirable stimuli so obvious that attention must perforce respond, to the exclusion of those stimuli which have been made as unobtrusive as possible. *Since the child can give attention to but one thing at a time, the prominence given to stimuli to wholesome action tends to inhibit response to unwholesome stimuli.* This law lies at the root of the third great mode of school government, that which, for want of a better term, we are calling the mode of Wholesome Repletion.[1] It is that method of control and development which seeks to kill unhealthful and destructive tendencies by disuse; to crowd out the bad by the good, until habit and taste are so fixed that those stimuli that might once have excited a ready response have no effect.

"Busy-work" as a help to good order

Concrete examples of this mode of government are without number. They include all the devices employed from time immemorial to keep children out of mischief. The "busy-work" of the primary grades, which really affords a variety of positive and desirable training for hand and brain, confesses in its name its aim and origin, which is the purely negative one of employing attention during the intervals between concentration on lessons. Busy-work may defeat its own purpose, and become a hindrance rather than an aid to good order, under certain conditions:

---

[1] The inaccuracy of the term is granted, but its application to the mode described is too close to be sacrificed.

1. It is not helpful if it lacks an essential intrinsic appeal that is stronger than the always ready stimuli to voluntary attention. It must be interesting. Bright colors, beautiful texture, the reasonableness of the task or problem, the challenge to successful imitation, the desire of making a present to mother or some other dear one — these are some of the characteristics or incentives that give interest to busy-work. The appeal must be simple, direct, and strong to compete successfully with the call of schoolroom fun, the constant play of surrounding movement and event, that appeal to a child to give his attention to the life about him.

2. It must be changed frequently, lest attention, jaded by too long application, recoil so far as not willingly or easily to be brought back.

3. It must be quiet and orderly, or it causes more confusion than it cures. Teachers have been known to employ children not engaged in lessons by having them clean blackboards, sort pencils, or distribute materials. The movement and noise disturb others who are trying to concentrate on lessons.

Motivation which adds interest to studies

Any motive which gives an intrinsic interest to the regular school tasks tends to direct a degree of attention to them which excludes illegitimate interests. Therefore all devices and varieties of motivation are properly classed with the methods of the mode of Wholesome Repletion. The vividness given to school studies by thorough equipment and the best methods of presentation gives a pleasant connotation to the real work of the school, which tends to outvalue the call of fun and mischief.

THE MODE OF WHOLESOME REPLETION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

The character of the school as a preparatory institution becomes less pronounced as the possibilities of its preparatory function unfold. That is to say, as we realize how various and how efficient its training may be, that training acquires more and more of intrinsic interest, and the life of the high school gains an importance entirely aside from its value as preparation. The preparation is more, not less efficient than formerly, but the immediate value and pleasure of its activities eclipse their final purpose in the minds of the students. The high school is a place wherein people live, not an ante-chamber and waiting-room to life. As its life becomes richer, more complicated, more and more a replica of the great life beyond and outside it, organizations devoted to the cultivation of specific interests spring up within it. Literary societies, athletic associations, class teams and school teams in tennis, debating, rowing, clubs for everything from Browning to folk-dancing, and even secret societies that imitate the Greek-letter fraternities of college life, have followed the introduction of a broader spirit and an enlarged curriculum into the secondary school.

Two kinds of organization

The tendency to organization is of two kinds. There are children who, left to themselves, organize as naturally as they breathe; and there are others who require as definite a tutoring in this art as in reading and writing. The spontaneous type of organization expends its energy largely in the fascinating business of exclusion; it is negative rather than positive, and gives us the gang and the clique, with rites and secrets and an exaggerated personal loyalty to members. On the other hand, positive and constructive organization among young people is almost wholly imitative. Much of the great value of high school organization lies in the opportunity of teachers to supervise and direct. Here teachers may come into close personal contact with pupils upon the common ground of voluntary interests; and through the medium of those interests exert an influence impossible to the more formal pursuits of the classroom.

The interests of adolescence

A certain small proportion of high school students find in lessons alone an absorbing interest. These students — these "digs" who would rather make a star recitation than take a city — are rarely disposed to give any trouble to teachers. Their moral digressions, like their numbers, are negligible. But the great majority of high school boys and girls regard the curriculum as a necessary excuse for a variety of delightful relations and pursuits, which appeal *per se* to their imagination and love of action. The motives for study are often remote and artificial, accepted on faith as presented by parents, teachers, and long established custom. Even where they are real, they appeal rather to a cold-blooded self-interest than to any immediate need or wish. But athletics and social affairs and fascinating arts like photography have a direct appeal. A hundred new things beckon to the aroused spirit of youth; a hundred voices call, all strange and sweet, and youth will answer to the most insistent. *If free choice be given among as many special activities as the size and equipment of the school permit, and then freedom to divert into the channel of these special interests all the energy remaining from the thorough performance of regular school duties, there will be left little of youthful spirits to be kept from evil.*

With all its possibilities, this mode of control requires very careful planning and still more careful management. Under careless or tactless supervision it may produce disastrous results. Here are some reasons for its failure, partial or complete, in some high schools where it has been tried and found inadequate or unsatisfactory:

Why high school organizations fail

1. Inexperienced children and youths are permitted to organize and manage their extra-curricular activities without close and wise supervision.

2. There is an absence of the strict rule that only those who are carrying their studies satisfactorily can engage in athletics or other special activities; or the rule is not conscientiously enforced. Consequently these secondary recreative activities come to take first place, and scholarship suffers.

3. Students do not have freedom to turn their attention *immediately* to recreative activities, upon finishing their regular tasks. This flaw in management is responsible for more of failure, perhaps, than any other one thing. If John, finishing his Latin, has permission to leave the room at once and go to the gymnasium, where he is in training for an indoor meet, he will work hard, leave the assembly room quietly, and disturb no one. If Louise, having written and

copied her theme, is free to go to the rest-room and embroider the front of her new blouse, she will not spend her spare time in writing notes to the other girls, who have not finished their themes yet but who do not object to interruption. John and Louise have not only aided in upholding schoolroom order, but they have had a motive for learning to work with concentration and energy. The iron-bound rule of "No passing between classes" probably lessens confusion in the halls to promote it in the assembly-room.

4. Some high school clubs do not offer open membership to all who can qualify. It destroys the democracy of the high school to allow young people to elect or reject members. It encourages snobbishness by giving full play to the often blundering judgment of youth. A posted statement of the membership qualifications, dues, and duties of each high school society or team, with limited membership decided by supervised competition, seems the fairest and best way of controlling membership. The natural tendency of human beings to flock in congenial cliques, with a penal system by which offending members are denied privileges, may be depended upon to keep the membership fairly homogeneous and friendly.

High school secret societies

Without entering into an extended discussion of them, a word may be said here about high school secret societies. They exist with no thought of the good of all the school, nor do they answer any real need of high school pupils that can not better be met in other ways. It is true that they do absorb practically all the time of their members that is not spent in school work, and that by setting up a distinct line of cleavage between Greeks and "barbs," they may even lessen the tendency to schoolroom disorder. It is usually true that members of high school Greek-letter societies do not indulge in the foolish tricks and pranks to which other students are given; their absurd imitation of their elders extends to premature sophistication that scorns all childish things. Their mischievous instincts are expended in ways far more injurious to them, and far harder for school authorities and parents to combat.

They can not be regulated

The intrinsic evil of the high school fraternity lies partly in the impossibility of its effective supervision. Left to themselves, its members are pretty sure to adopt the superficial hall-marks of the more spectacular of the college models; the real objects, like the real need, of the college fraternity do not enter into their consciousness. As an aid to good order and a good spirit in the school, the secret society has shown itself a clear failure, both with regard to its own members and to outsiders. Where they do not exist, teachers will do well to allow them no foothold; where they are to be found, the problem of their management or expulsion must be dealt with as local conditions indicate.

The end in sight

Fortunately a growing public sentiment against them presages their extinction at no very distant date, even without the united influence of the college fraternities and sororities, which is now directed against them. This attitude of the college societies will probably accomplish what all the arguments of good sense and expediency have not been able to effect, and the next few years will see the end of the fraternity obsession among high school boys and girls. The evil of caste consciousness, however, which is the backbone of such societies, will remain when this especial manifestation is done away, unless care is taken to build up healthy ideals of school equality and courtesy.

Utilizing the social interests of high school students

The social organizations in any high school should be answers to a real need, growing out of that need and of the consciousness that the school authorities stand ready to sanction and foster whatever is for the real pleasure and benefit of the students. Existing interests, wholesome in nature and effect, when extensive enough to warrant it, should be able to effect organization with the hearty coöperation of the faculty. It is a foolish waste of energy and time to try to effect organizations to create interests. These were better developed quietly by individual effort of teachers and students, until enough pupils are really interested to demand a club or committee or team.

Interest, the basis of social organization

Any activity flourishes better under the care of a regularly organized body than when left to the hit-or-miss direction of a group of irresponsible people, however, and when enough people to form a club have become actively interested in it, it is best to organize. Organization is usually the least of the anxieties of teachers who want to improve school spirit and behavior by wholesome occupation of time and attention. The more difficult part of the process is the arousing of the initial interest that warrants organization. Unfailing tact, energy, and enthusiasm are needed for the task of creating new channels for youth's "long, long thoughts," and redirecting into these more wholesome ways energies that are being spent to no good purpose.

Establishing interests

The first step is to find where the interests of students lie. In many rural communities and small towns there seems to be a lack of adequate activities, and the young people exist in a semi-comatose state, deterred from actual mischief by Puritanic tradition, but equally inactive along the line of the healthy enterprises that they should be carrying on. In larger places the activities of adolescence have often been badly directed, perhaps by those who profit by commercializing entertainment. Here they need redirection, while in the case of country children they must be created or at least stimulated. Some organization is often necessary even in the first stages of establishing a new enterprise, as for instance in starting the game of tennis where it has not been played before. A division into teams is a device that arouses the interest that comes from emulation. But this initial organization is an imposed one, to merge after a time into a more thorough one suggested by the students when their interest has been deepened by pleasurable experience. That is to say, it is useless to attempt to base this mode of control upon artificial interests; they must be genuine and intrinsic or any good results obtained through the charm of novelty will soon pass away, proving the waste of time and effort involved.

Nature of organization

Being satisfied, then, that there exists enough interest to justify an organization, the question of its nature and form is next to be decided. Three requirements for students' societies need constantly to be kept in mind:

They must be democratic.

They must be effective.

They must be so managed as to keep the auxiliary interests of the school subordinate to its main purpose.

Regulating membership

The first of these conditions is fulfilled if the membership of a society be open to all who have met the entrance requirements, decided upon by the faculty or by faculty and members acting together. Scholarship is the most important of these, for it is a regulation that appeals to the common sense of everyone that no student should be permitted to engage in extra-curricular activities unless he have carried his regular studies. In some schools the further qualification of congeniality is so highly valued that members are given the right to blackball an applicant in certain clubs without giving any reason for their action. This is a practice to be discouraged, for it leads almost inevitably to snobbishness and the growth of foolish prejudices. Members may be given the right to blackball an applicant in certain clubs, providing the members are willing to give the reason for their action to their faculty adviser. In a majority of cases even this privilege were better withheld, especially in the large athletic and literary organizations. For similar reasons, it is better not to allow high school societies to extend invitations to membership, except where such invitations are directly contingent upon the attaining of high rank in some subject, or the rendering of signal service to the school, when they become honors that are open to all. The knowledge that any society in the school is open to any student who can satisfy the requirements of scholarship and of the special ability needed, is a valuable spur to effort and an assurance of a healthy democratic spirit in the school.

Effectiveness

The second necessity, that of effectiveness, is not so easily disposed of. A good general rule for those who are treading new ground is to keep the first organization very simple, appointing or electing officers for whom there is real work to be done, and carefully adapting the usual functions of such officers to the present needs. Similar societies in other schools offer good suggestions, but should not be copied slavishly, since the initiative and persistence of students differ so widely. Small administrative bodies, of course, are the most effective; but on the other hand, the success of young people's societies depends so largely upon giving all something to do, that a large number of officers and committees are usually included in the management. Standards of efficiency, established carefully at the beginning, with provision for the dismissal of trouble-making or lazy officers, are precautions which it is wise to adopt.

Keeping them "in their place"

The maintenance of the third requirement depends upon the vigilance of the teachers. If checked at regular intervals, and if methods are provided by which students who fall below a fair standard are deprived for a time of their special privileges, or even of active membership in the societies to which they belong, scholarship — by which is meant here a fair degree of accomplishment in studies — may easily be kept in its proper place as the leading interest in the school. The machinery by which students are reinstated when neglected work has been made up, should be as prompt and sure in its workings as that by which they are shut out of these activities when they fail to meet requirements. A very large part of the trouble and delinquency caused by overdone athletics and social affairs, could be prevented by quicker and surer means of controlling participation. Every school in which there are several societies and athletic teams should have sets of blank permissions and suspensions, to faciliate this process of adjustment of privilege to standing in classes.

The interests utilized

The special interests utilized for social development in high schools are almost without number, but they fall easily into a few loosely defined classes. There are those which are purely athletic, musical, literary, or forensic. There are recreational clubs based upon physical exercises of various kinds — dancing, including the folk-dancing so deservedly popular, tennis, boating, "hiking," and camping. Added to these are the clubs organized to encourage the dilettantism of students: the camera clubs, the wireless circles, the foreign language conversation meetings, societies for the study of plays, pictures, and politics, travel clubs, and social settlement associations, or other altruistic efforts. Lastly, there are the purely social organizations, which are of two kinds: those which are elastic and democratic in membership, and those which gratify the tendency to exalt exclusiveness by organizing it. The democratic sort of social activity may be fostered best as a natural accompaniment to other interests — by permitting, for instance, each high school organization to give one party, properly supervised and chaperoned, each year or each semester. The second kind of organization leads to the fraternity or sorority, to whose evils reference has already been made.

Administration

It is necessary that there be constant and friendly supervision of all high school organizations. To this end each one should have its faculty adviser, who is expected to attend all meetings, and is responsible for the measures and actions of the society. He may be elected by the members or appointed by the principal. To prevent any shadow of scandal in money matters, there should be an auditing committee with at least one faculty member, to go over the books of each enterprise, preferably twice a year. In some schools all the societies put their funds into the hands of a faculty treasurer, who looks after the finances of the different organizations as part of his regular work.[1]

Reports

A custom which lays emphasis upon earnest aims is that of requiring each student enterprise to submit to the school at least once a year a report of work accomplished. This puts a premium upon industry, encourages the carrying out of a definite program, and exposes the comparative fruitlessness of the purely social organizations. It gives prominence to the incentive of service. The school orchestra receives recognition for its helpfulness in furnishing music for entertainments, the glee club and the debating teams and the cooking club see their work reviewed with fitting acknowledgment.

---

[1] This is the plan followed in the McKinley High School of St Louis, which has a large number of student organizations.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE MODE OF WHOLESOME REPLETION

The psychological explanation of the success of this mode, expecially in the high school, is that of youth's response to a set of especially attractive stimuli, which flatter newly-awakened ambitions and emotions. The response of youth to the call of responsibility, whether confident or timid, gives a new consciousness of dignity and worth. Many will bear witness to the reforms that followed making a bad boy monitor of his row, or captain of his team, or leader in a debate.

Ceremony

Similarly, the appeal of rite and ceremony is very strong. The instinct for complete and perfect form, for effective symbolism, and for beauty all unite to make young people delight in the picturesque and the formal. Social ceremony, which bores older people, is to them a new and fascinating kind of amusement. Pageants and tableaux delight them.

The play's the thing.

Intellectual stimuli

With the development of the reasoning powers that comes with adolescence, there springs up in the minds of some young people a growing pleasure in their exercise. To such students geometry and physics offer realms well worth exploring, and debating is a battle royal with big prizes at stake. The keen joy of solving and proving a hard problem is not unlike that of the skater who cuts a perfect 8 upon the ice; one has made the ends of thought meet in a faultless line, through the magic of a well-mastered art.

The joy of thinking is a revelation; the possibilities of thought startle the imagination. To such students, a wise teacher gives the greatest books he knows, realizing that it is almost impossible to overestimate the capacity for thought in an intellect so awakened. The brain is eager for work, the mind hungry for food, and a new consciousness of the meaningful world that lies about, translates, illustrates, and questions the words of books. That teacher does well, who, finding a boy who likes Emerson, gives him Kant; who introduces the lover of Shakespeare to Euripides. To know greatness will not turn a healthy boy into a mollycoddle, owing to the fact that incongruities do not worry us in youth as in maturer years. "Consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds" and of grown people. The boy who has just been discussing the theories of Mendel or the art of Sir Joshua is liable to turn around to shoot a paper wad at Washington's plaster nose, without any care for the incongruity of his transfer of interest. Nevertheless, the free use of intellectual stimuli, the engaging of busy brains in big thoughts, does crowd out petty pleasures and silly occupations, and simplifies the problem of school-room order.

Emotional stimuli

But while a few students in every school are affected by strictly intellectual stimuli, all respond in greater or less degree to emotional ones. It is the emotional element in any study that gives it life, interest, application. History and literature are the two studies most rich in this content; civics, geography, composition, and languages may be taught in a way to make their emotional worth felt. The beauty and mystery of personal relationships, of religious aspirations, and of the life of the great world, are open now to the comprehension of these growing boys and girls. They acquire the new knowledge frankly or secretly, reverently or flippantly, carefully or indifferently, according to their different dispositions and training. But their response to the emotional side of life, whatever their attitude toward it, is bound to influence their choice of interests, good or bad. It sends them to the best lectures and the worst picture-shows. It is the fundamental motive for a hundred things that look unemotional enough. The successful appeal of wholesome recreations, as of lessons themselves, depends largely upon the amount of this element that can be infused into the activity in question.

Ambition

A new emphasis on practical preparation for wage-earning is changing what has been an important extra-curricular feature in some schools, into a chief end and aim. This is that class of subjects of which the aim is to teach an art or a trade, or to help in the choice of a vocation. Making a strong appeal to ambition, these subjects have much influence, especially upon the older boys and girls, who are looking forward definitely to the life that lies beyond the school. It has led to the formation of high school clubs for the study of telegraphy, photography, sewing, cooking, millinery, ceramics, and cabinet-making.

Association with one another tends to strengthen the hopes and define the plans of boys and girls who have similar ambitions. The existence of a club for the study of any art or science, moreover, calls attention to it, and may be instrumental in "placing" some children in congenial employments, who otherwise would drift aimlessly or take up an occupation in which they would be doomed to constant discontent. There is inspiration in the very atmosphere of a school in which a majority of the students are vitally interested in some hobby or specialty. There is much of that friendly clash of championship which sharpens wits and strengthens self-confidence.

Most important of all, there is in the high school in which many clubs and societies exist, a chance for leadership for all. Domination is demoralizing when it is exercised by an immature youth, but wholesome leadership develops confidence, the sense of responsibility, ingenuity, tact, firmness, and patience. There is a chance for various talents to work out for public good, in the multiform activities of a well-clubbed high school. Even the shyest may be entrusted with the chairmanship of a committee or the preparation of a program, or set to keeping records or taught to preside over a meeting. Practically everyone else is doing something of the sort, which is logical proof to almost any child that he may do likewise. Supervision will eliminate dangers, and every success gained is an encouragement to new efforts. The ambition aroused reacts to give new personal dignity and responsiveness, which in their turn inhibit childish tendencies to bad order or to sheer frivolity. Thus this phase of the new order of school activities helps in the solution of the old, old problem of school discipline.

CHAPTER IV

THE MODES OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT (Continued)

V. The Mode of Social Consciousness

Making the social relation conscious

The story of civilization is the record of the development of man's social consciousness. As successively larger groups have supplanted the individual, in man's long struggle for existence and for abundance, more economical and beneficial ways of living, finer emotions, and bigger-planned enterprises have grown. Following the history of the race, each child born into the world may pass from a stage in which its own wants bound all the stimuli to action, to the highest pinnacle of unselfish effort for all society. From the standpoint of ethical training and of social efficiency, the most important function of the school is the part it plays in making the child's social relations plain to him. But within the general end of clarifying to him his relations to the whole social body, and awakening a desire to serve that body, there is a consonant and contributing specific aim, which serves the immediate purpose of securing good school government. This is the aim of establishing a definite consciousness of each pupil's place in the organic body of the school, that social institution in which, after the family, he is most deeply and naturally interested. This establishing of social consciousness has begun, for the family relation, long before the first day of the first grade; but as there is as yet no abstract conception to aid in carrying it over into a new sphere, the work must be freshly started for the new relation when the kindergarten or primary school begins. The process is progressive, variable, and unending. It goes on daily at every stage of formal education. All moral effort since schools began has consciously or unconsciously been directed toward its development. Its establishment is the fundamental condition for the mode of self-government under direction, which is the ideal sought.

Rewards of proper social conduct

With this progressive clarification of social relations, the results of conduct agreeing with, or antagonistic to, those relations, must be taught. In the schoolroom, concrete illustrations of the gains and losses of social and unsocial conduct are numerous. The teacher's great work is to call attention to them. When we do not whisper, the room is quiet, and we learn our lessons more quickly; then we all have more time for outdoor play, and home work is lessened or eliminated. When we have our own drinking cups, there is small chance of contagion from drinking; and with a regular and full attendance we may easily give a concert or a play that could not otherwise be produced. Such statements of cause and effect seem so obvious to most grown people, that they feel a sense of foolish triteness in carefully recounting them to the children in their care. But they are really new knowledge at some point in the training of each child, and the risk of being bromidic is not to be compared to the risk of failing to establish that habit of thought — or that useful set of easily-recalled platitudes, that passes for a habit of thought — which will insure in even the most self-centered a thrifty social spirit.

The results of unsocial conduct

The fostering care of the teacher should work through his social organization to the individual, as well as for the social organization through the individual. This is merely to say that the teacher must be a maker of public opinion in his kingdom. Several conventional understandings are necessary: that people have a right to show their disapproval of behavior that interferes with their happiness or usefulness; that it is the duty of the properly selected officers of society to punish wrongdoers; that people who want the greatest good to the greatest numbers are bound to help these authorities to find and punish offenders; and that isolation (denial of the advantages that come from social coöperation) is a fit reward for the human being who abuses his social privileges.

Four great principles

These four ideas, which once established will give the support of public opinion to any disciplinary measures a teacher may find it necessary to take, can be taught best in the lower grades; and there is the place where they should be thoroughly drilled into consciousness. The third one is especially important and especially difficult to teach, owing to the perverted ideas of honor which have descended to us from our ancestors, trained to loyalty to a limited group. These medieval ideas seem to have found their last and most stubborn stronghold in our public schools, where not a few teachers aid and abet their perpetuation. Here again the consciousness of the organic nature of society is the fundamental need. We are all a part of the

Justice is everyone's business

judicial system, in some seen or unseen way; we are all vitally concerned in the punishment of wrong, in the protection of our rights and our institutions. Our own happiness and safety, consequently, are bound up in its success, in ways usually untraceable, but sometimes so direct as to be apparent to the most thoughtless. Every boy and girl in the school is to some extent responsible for its happiness, its order, its work. The exercise of that responsibility, when occasion demands, not only answers the immediate disciplinary need, but tends also to develop character in a wholesome way.

SPECIAL FORMS OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT FOUNDED ON THE MODE OF SOCIAL CONSCIOUSNESS

The ability to govern himself, to control his own actions with the good of both himself and his fellows in mind, is one of the ideals toward which the character-building of pupils is to be directed. Little by little, as they show themselves worthy of trust, the control of authority is withdrawn and self-control takes its place. There is much danger, in a society wherein democratic ideals prevail, that self-management be given before self-control has been gained. On the other hand, to withhold the right of decision when people are capable of exercising it intelligently is unjust and foolish, fatal to development, productive of discontent and violence.

Self-control and self-direction

What society has as a complicated problem,— in the solution of which it blunders pitifully but bravely through every gradation of despotic repression and democratic license, working, we may hope, finally to a satisfactory end,— the school, which is a little world, the microcosm of society, has also as its problem of the relative control of teacher and pupils. In an ideal school system, in which ideal pupils work to the highest end, each boy and girl at graduation would be a citizen of the world, capable of taking upon himself all a citizen's responsibilities. Our aim is, then, to bring each pupil as nearly as may be to the point of full self-control and purely ethical conduct by the time he is ready to leave the fostering of the school.

Purpose of pupil government

To aid in realizing this ideal, there have sprung up during the last few years a number of systems of partial or complete pupil-government, by which the social responsibilities of pupils may be brought to their attention, and practice given in their exercise. A consideration of the wisdom of the use of such schemes is given in a later chapter; at present, we shall consider the four types into which all the self-governing schemes now used may be divided. It will be noted that most of them have two features in common: the attempt to develop character through the imposing of responsibility, and the teaching of civics through practice in the forms of government. In some, the latter feature is kept strictly subservient to the main object, which must always be that of increasing the spirit of social loyalty and obligation. In other types, much is made of the formal machinery which parallels that of city or state.

Since responsibility comes both as a reward and as a stimulant to worthy behavior, it is important that its relation to each pupil's conduct be clearly understood before teachers and pupils agree to live together under any formal scheme of so-called self-government. Every plan which has, so far, proved successful, seems to depend upon two things: thorough and continuous preparation of the pupils by training in ethics, and the guiding mind of some sane, powerful, and magnetic leader. Given these two requisites, however, the successful working of a school system is practically assured without the imposition of an elaborate system of pupil-government. Justice, kindness, and self-realization through self-activity will prevail where these two elements exist, as surely as in the most elaborate school-city or school-state. It is largely a question of the desirabliity of expending the necessary time and energy — usually a great deal.

Four pupil-government types

There seem to be four methods, each capable of much modification, by which teachers may avail themselves of the social instincts and ideals possessed by their pupils, to impose on the pupils themselves the responsibility of their own conduct, and at the same time to teach them their responsibility for others, in relation to the general body. If we consider them in the reverse order of their relative emphasis upon the formal and spectacular phases of this mode of government, the first type is that in which there is practically no imitation of civic forms, but in which the spirit of service to all is directed pretty thoroughly by teachers. This is pupil coöperation with the modes of control set up by the school authorities. There may be a maximum of pupil responsibility here, but the nature of that responsibility is defined by those older than the pupils. It lacks the powerful stimulus of decision-making vested in the school body. Personal accountability is made much of; high ideals of honor in teachers and pupils are essential. A faculty of fine feeling and great dignity and power is the most helpful factor in making this mode a success, for unity of feeling and unusual personal influence must take the place of prescribed machinery. There is a strong loyalty between students and faculty, and a deal of popular devotion of both to the school.

Obviously, all this requires a condition of things in general so nearly ideal that many principals despair of realizing it, and turn rather to methods whose greater novelty gives an initial impulse which carries a long way to success. No specific examples of schools thus managed need be given, for every well-managed and successful school which emphasizes social obligation without adopting the special machinery of a civic organization, is working under the plan of pupil coöperation with the teaching force. It is simply that method by which teachers and pupils work together in sympathetic understanding of their common ends.

Formal self-government under faculty control

A very successful type of so-called self-government is that in which the pupils carry out the forms of civic life under the direct control of the teachers. Some exercise of real judgment is allowed in the settlement of the innumerable small matters that require constant adjustment in every school, but always subject to definite restrictions by the school authorities. The system thus gives practice in the administration of law, but no real legislative or judicial powers. As a means of teaching civics, this scheme is usually very successful, while it affords an opportunity for a sort of supervised habit-forming that is most valuable. But it undoubtedly requires as much or more energy on the part of teachers as a more direct form of government would require, so that its chief value lies in the habituation to forms of social conformity and the emphasis on a socialized attitude, which it brings about.

The Lagrange School

An excellent example of this kind of supervised and limited self-government is to be found in the Lagrange School of Toledo, Ohio. Miss Brownlee, the former principal, under whom the system was begun, says of it: "It may be well to say that the Lagrange pupils do not govern the school. The teachers believe they are too lacking in experience and judgment to be self-governing. The idea is to develop a spirit of coöperation, to give them, so far as they are qualified, certain duties to a faithful performance of which they are rigidly held." Nevertheless, the school is thoroughly organized as a school city, each room as a ward. The four upper grades form the voting population, and elections are held semi-annually. There is a mayor, a sanitary chief, a treasurer, and a city clerk, with inspectors appointed by the sanitary chief, one for each two wards. The council thus formed notes conditions and reports to the principal, who communicates with the teachers interested.

On the surface, this Lagrange plan looks very like many other plans in which far more power is delegated to the pupils. But it does not give the essential resignation of power into the hands of the pupils, which characterizes such schemes where self-government is actual. Its successful working may largely be attributed, as Miss Brownlee says, to the fact that principles of honor, self-control, kindness, and industry are taught in that school systematically.

Actual pupil-government as a privilege

The sound principle of granting honors and responsibilities as a reward for good conduct and faithful service lies at the root of the Ray system, in use in the John Crerar school in Chicago.[1] The system is used in all the grades, the two tribunes being appointed in the first two grades and elected in the rest. These tribunes, who have much real authority, wear a badge, and in many ways take the place of teachers. They settle disputes, look after halls and courts, direct the marching, listen to reports of offenses, take charge of the room when the teacher is not present, and protect the weak from imposition. All petty offenses are carried to them, and only the more serious ones are later referred to teachers. All the tribunes form a council, which appoints administrative officers.

Not all the pupils are citizens in this little state. Half or more of each room from the fifth grade upward, as a reward for good scholarship and behavior, are granted citizenship, which is forfeited upon misbehavior. Some are elected to citizenship, others are appointed by teachers. They have the liberty of the building, and may vote upon special questions that arise. It will be noticed that this system sets up an unusually powerful set of incentives to good conduct, to which the stock objection to such incentives (that they are artificial) can scarcely be urged. Sound principles underlie the various provisions.

Actual self-government

Finally, there is actual and universal pupil-government, usually modeled after municipal or state forms. In these systems the final authority is not the teaching body, but a set of rules which have been fashioned by the pupils themselves. Naturally, much teacher-influence goes into both the making and the maintenance of such schemes, but nominally there is a reign of law, administered by elected officers, independent of pedagogic ruling.

---

[1] J. T. Ray, *Democratic Government of Schools.*

The city-school type

A well-known example of the city-school type of pupil mutual government is that organized at School No. 3, Manhattan, New York City. The principle of reward of merit has recognition here in the granting of citizenship by charter to the upper four grades, and to individual pupils in the fourth grade, for good behavior. Disorder in the room endangers citizenship, which may be revoked by the principal. Each room is a borough, sending two aldermen to the Board, which passes laws subject to the mayor's veto. The mayor, popularly elected, conducts the morning assembly and appoints the heads of the administrative departments. These include a police department, with a chief who appoints five squads, a health department which inspects rooms and persons, a savings department which conducts a school bank under the direction of a teacher, and an educational department to arrange for lectures and athletic events. There is besides a court, having three elected judges, and a jury if desired, with privilege of counsel. It tries cases and administers punishment. A city attorney and court clerk complete the list of officers.

A graded system

In the State Normal School at New Paltz, New York, there are three school cities, graded in respect of elaboration of detail to suit the abilities of students in the normal, intermediate, and primary departments. Here, among the older students, much is done to teach political principles and practices. Conventions, elections, and inaugurations are held, and political parties, the use of the recall, the initiative and referendum, taxes, and proportional representation, add interest and training value to the system. The administrative departments attend to the fire drill and all needful precautions, public works (including care of the flag, the school garden, election booths, school entertainments, and athletics,) health, and police service. There is a sheriff with appointed deputies. The faculty acts as a court of appeals, the principal presiding.[1]

In this special form of pupil-government, it will be observed, there is opportunity for much dramatizing of the work in civics. Dramatization is an especially vivid method of presenting any subject, and its use in a scheme for developing an ideal of self-control may justify all the energy which goes into the building up of these elaborate play-governments.

The state-school type

Another type of pupil-government is modeled after the state rather than the municipality. The best-known example is the famous George Junior Republic at Freeville, New York. This is a school for city waifs, founded by Mr. William R. George. The citizens during part of their time at this school, are engaged in profitable work in field and workshop, by which the school is partially supported. The boys elect a police force, executive officers, and a legislature, which makes laws for the community. Law-enforcement is strict and impartial, the penalties being very real ones, such as detention in jail and the paying of fines. The whole government, in fact, is far from being a pretense; it exercises all the functions of a state.

---

[1] All the school cities together form a school state, with its governor, legislature, and judiciary. For the charter of a school city in full, see Bagley, *Classroom Management*, pp. 291 ff.

Not a typical situation

The boys in this institution, however, are boys whose experiences have enabled them prematurely to assume the responsibilities of men in almost every way. They are the little men who have made their own way almost from babyhood, and managed their own affairs from the time they were able to walk. The trust imposed in them, and the opportunities for exercising their abilities in a wholesome way, appeal to the best in their natures. The girls, who have their own round of duties, are also girls from the city slums, to whom trust and kindness are new and powerful elements in the general scheme of things. The necessity of industry is a real one, as living expenses are paid from the wages received for labor, furnished to all the citizens. A special coinage, current only in the Republic, is used. The laws are made by the legislature, and enforced by the officers elected by the citizens. Mr. and Mrs. George, while they were in charge at Freeport, assisted with the inspection of work, and exercised a kindly supervision of work and play. The school, which has an attendance of 250 in summer, has been instrumental in effecting the reform of a number of its citizens. The power of Mr. George, back of the authority of the government of the children themselves, was of course unquestioned.

A workable high school plan

The adaptation of state government used in the High School at Warren, Pennsylvania, is probably more helpfully suggestive to the average school.[1] Pupil government was adopted here in 1890, and is still being used with satisfaction. All students are citizens, the governing body being a senate, eligibility to which depends upon good scholarship and deportment. Senators and faculty members report misdemeanors to the principal, who in turn reports them to the senate. The senate acts as a court, inflicting the lighter punishments and making recommendations to the faculty in the more serious cases. All offenses in connection with examinations are dealt with by the faculty. Teachers, however, do not belong to the governing board.

Other types

Other forms of actual student-government are not modeled after the forms of either city or state organization.

At the Thirtieth Street Intermediate School, Los Angeles, California, there are two committees, of boys and girls respectively, who are held responsible for the conduct of pupils while out of classrooms. These committees are composed of representatives from classrooms, thus forming councils of boys and girls, which discuss conditions and make rules. There is a president for each council, also a vice-president and secretary; these executives appoint from the membership of the councils, yard, basement, and hall committees. Each council has a judge elected by the whole school, who hears cases affecting the common weal.

At the Polytechnic High School of the same city, there exists an elaborate system (elaborate because of the large size and varied interests of the school) which combines in an unusual degree the socializing elements of the High School with a workable scheme of student control. As in the Thirtieth Street School, the elected representatives for boys and for girls manage affairs in their respective spheres separately, a mode evidently more in favor in the West than in the Eastern and Middle states. The central committees are elected as follows: One from the B9, one from the A9, and two each from the B10, A10, B11, A11, B12, A12; and one from the post-graduate classes. The president is elected by the students in general and appoints as active members of the committee elected by the various classes, from five to eight more students who have served previously on the committee, or who are recognized as students who will be an addition to the committee.

---

[1] C. H. Thurber, in *School Review*, vol. v, pp. 32–5.

A committee system

Each of these central self-government committees is divided into the following sub-committees: an executive committee, whose duty it is to meet once a week and hear and judge cases of students who are referred to it by members of the faculty or by students. They have power to act in all cases, even to recommending suspension to the principal. They keep a detention room where students who have been sentenced to serve hours are expected to remain. The president of the self-government committee usually acts as chairman of the executive committee. The yard committee has charge of conditions in the yard during the noon hour and all other free periods. The desk committee has a student at the desk every hour of the day from eight o'clock in the morning until four in the afternoon to pass upon all cases of tardiness either to the building or to recitation and to issue slips which admit to classrooms — white slips for excused tardiness and blue slips for unexcused — and to keep a record of all excuses. The building committee of three goes over the building on an average of once a week and reports to the office any writing or other defacement which should be removed. The school bounds committee interviews students who are leaving the grounds, with a view to the regulation of this privilege.

Articulation with the teaching authority

The entire self-government committee meets upon call from the office to discuss questions of general school interest. The members of this committee discuss these questions with the boys in the different classrooms and at time of meeting — on call from the office — give to the office the benefit of the discussion so held. When decisions have been reached by the office and self-government committee, the members again discuss the matter with the different classrooms and tell the students of the decisions reached.

The entire business of the school is under the management of a board of control, composed of two teachers and eight students, one from each class. A teacher acts as treasurer, and a book-keeper is elected by the board, whose president, vice-president, and secretary, however, are elected by the students at large. Lunchroom management, business management of athletics, the business affairs of the school publications, and of all school entertainments are directly under the control of this body. All expenditures for the school except the salaries and cost of repairs, and all moneys received by the school, which during the year amount to between twenty-five and thirty thousand dollars, must be approved by this board.

The controlling committee

The school clubs of all kinds are welded into a body capable of united action by the Associated Student Body Organizations, to which the presidents belong, and of which the principal is chief adviser. The senior class elects the editor and manager of the school paper. Members from each room, headed by a captain elected by the school, compose the fire brigade, which conducts the fire drills. The manager of the lunch room is elected monthly by the board of control, while the principal appoints a committee to aid in the recovery of lost articles. The athletic committee consists of student representatives from the board of control, scholarship committee, and boys' self-government divisions, with one appointed by the principal, and three teachers elected by the faculty. An unusual feature is the scholarship committee, made up of ten boys and ten girls appointed by the faculty, grouped under two chairmen elected by the students. Under the guidance of this committee, able students help those who need help, and deficient students are forced to give extra time to their work until it is satisfactory. Weekly reports must be made to the committee by failing students until the work is made up. The committee even directs that work shall be dropped when students are overscheduled, and decides when failing students shall be dismissed from school. This method of mutual helpfulness and supervision has proved successful in keeping the scholarship standard on a high plane, through the activity of those whose approval means most to the boys and girls — their own schoolmates.

What is really gained

The foregoing outline of pupil-government schemes shows the ways in which children may be organized to promote their own administrative ability. What the systems teach, however, is never so much self-government as the government of others. Such systems develop an extraordinary degree of skill in management, a maturity and quickness of judgment in children which would scarcely have been thought possible a generation ago. By finding work for all, moreover, they doubtless prevent a great deal of the mischief that springs from idleness; and by imposing responsibility upon the more active pupils they hold them to a loyalty to the system which turns their energies into wholesome channels. There are, however, numberless practical objections to such schemes, most of them phases of the almost inevitably bad results of imposing an essentially artificial condition upon any group of people. The test of self-government lies not in the ability to carry out an elaborate scheme, made picturesque by the trappings of maturity, and appealingly baited with honors and distinctions; but in doing daily the real, fundamental work of school life, each pupil frankly in his place as a learner, an apprentice still, but gaining constantly the power to do the thing that his teachers require, with less and less of their immediate help.

The fact that these plans for utilizing the social consciousness of students do not involve real self-government to any great extent, however, is not in itself a conclusive argument against them; for self-government is an attainment that may be gained by many paths, and is not to be secured by wholesale or by any magic formula of management. The crucial test for pupil-government schemes is whether they afford a more sure or economical means for *reaching* self-government than do the older plans of government by regularly instituted authorities.

From the teacher's point of view

On the part of the teaching force there is not a clear case in favor of pupil government. It must not be forgotten that, for the successful examples given, there are many failures, which do not appear in the educational journals but which have their effect upon our educational history. It would be foolish to condemn it in those cases in which teachers of strong personality have felt that this form of government supplied just the incentive needed in their particular schools. As a temporary expedient, it has perhaps justified itself; at least there are not wanting schools in which it has been tried and abandoned, but in which a higher plane of honor and responsibility has been maintained after the experiment than before it. It is noticeable that it has gained most spectacular success where conditions are not normal, as in large city school systems subject to the influence of unhealthy surroundings. The adoption of the elaborate artificiality of school states, cities, committee systems, and the like, may sometimes be the question-begging compromise of teachers who are not quite able to arouse the requisite interest and ideals in connection with the school's regular work. Hampered by the artificiality of traditional schoolroom customs, they add another artificiality seven times worse, in the hope of enlisting the support of pupils by making them accomplices in the situation. Rather than attack the fundamental evil, which is lack of respect for law (which, it is true, is so prevalent that children learn it at home and on the street faster than it can be corrected at school) they bribe their pupils to support this law by identifying them with it.

As it affects the conception of law

To a very old-fashioned person, the result seems to be an attitude of easy condescension toward all standards of right and wrong. He who makes the law is greater than the law, obviously; he who obeys is less than the law. Is it wise for young children to learn, by daily practice, that law is a thing created by themselves, subject to change if a majority of them wish it? In times perhaps gone by, children had an idea that rules of right and wrong came from a higher power — from parents, from teachers, from elected representatives in congresses assembled, ultimately from God Himself. If the old idea of the superiority of the law over the wishes of individuals, the old reverence for law as a controlling power, could be preserved or revived, might it not be better than the newer idea that law is but the collective wish of one's peers?

A summary

To recapitulate: The duty of each pupil so to order his actions as to conserve the good of all his associates, may be so impressed upon children as to affect their behavior for good. It is the highest of all motives for good behavior, depending upon the will for realization, and approximating the motives of social behavior in grown people in the world at large. Four systems of pupil-government based upon this mode are used:

1. That of pupil coöperation with teachers, in which self-government is allowed to individual pupils as they show themselves worthy or as conditions allow, but in

accordance with regulations made by the teaching authority.

2. That in which the teachers reserve all control, but permit the pupils to help in the administration of the school under the forms of some unit of civil government.

3. That in which real self-government is granted to such pupils as have earned it by good behavior.

4. That in which all the pupils of the school have a real voice in the school management and control.

The fundamental object

In a number of instances these schemes of pupil government have proved workable and highly successful. But true self-government may be developed without them, and it is doubtful if the elaborate dramatization of the forms of civil government is a necessary means of teaching the duties of citizenship. The ultimate decision of all school matters should lie with adults, and with adults who have studied school questions carefully and in their many bearings — in a word, with teachers.

SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTERS ON MODES OF CONTROL

The earliest mode of school government was that based on force, which demanded that the teacher's authority be regarded, without appeal to any motive of pleasure or gain on the part of the pupil.

To this was added a milder mode in which the teacher used his personal influence in persuading the pupil to follow directions.

Pupils may also refrain from evil and do good through interest in their own advantage and advancement.

A fourth mode of great practical use is that of filling the life of the pupil so full of wholesome interests that those antagonistic to good school discipline are crowded out.

The highest motive for which pupils can be trained to "be good" is that of contributing to the well-being and happiness of the whole school. Teachers can so guide their pupils that the lower of these motives will give way to successively higher ones, and in this way establish the better modes as fully as possible.

CHAPTER V

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN AMERICAN LIFE AS THEY AFFECT THE QUESTION OF SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

ONE'S best excuse for attempting to enumerate the characteristics of our national life which have helped to change school discipline, lies in the mutually retroactive nature of those influences and of school discipline. By seeing clearly what forces have operated to change so thoroughly the nature of school control and management, we may to some extent judge how far that change is a wholesome and a hopeful one, and also perhaps predict the effect of our altered methods upon the life of our people.

Feminization

The most direct and obvious influence, as has often been pointed out, is doubtless the feminization of the teaching force. The condition is a new one. Never before in the world's history were schools given over as they are now in America to women teachers. Possessed of a natural sympathy with children not so generally characteristic of men, used to securing their ends by diplomacy rather than by force, responding more or less adequately to a constantly-preached ideal in which soft voice, gentle manner, and angelic patience are important ingredients, women inevitably fell short of the Squeers standard of discipline, and early developed a teaching manner of their own. Frontier schools, demanding a teacher capable of administering a drubbing to the overgrown backwoods boys who attended them, rejected the woman teacher. But westward expansion was on the side of the schoolma'am, for when there were not masters enough to teach the schools in the old way, the public was forced to accept education at the hands of those who could teach only in the new. The greater needs and greater rewards in other fields for many years kept first-class men largely out of the profession of teaching; and the alert, energetic, responsibility-seeking American woman stepped into the breach. She has done her work well, and in bringing both her strength and her weaknesses into the schoolroom has exerted a determining influence upon educational methods. Probably her innate and ineradicable preference for the methods of persuasion has done more than any other one thing to discountenance harshness in American school management.

Interest and discipline

Another great influence is a diffused and indirect one which may be summed up in what is popularly known as the Doctrine of Interest. The enrichment of content which has come to all the subjects in our school courses, the conscious effort to make the school work appeal to the present interests of the pupils — the idea, in short, of making school a part of life, and a pleasant part too — this movement has had a marked effect in changing the attitude, and consequently the behavior, of children in school. It has by no means solved the problem of discipline, as some rose-bespectacled theorizers would have us believe: but it has immensely simplified it. It has changed a prison to a House of Life. It has revealed to children, where formerly they trod a hard path blindly, beauties by the wayside, and a far, fair country to be won at the journey's end. It has transformed slave-drivers into friends, and masters into elder brothers. It has unlocked with magic keys doors that were once fast closed; and broken down the barrier that once separated the interests of children from the interests of the great world. For now, even in the beginning of his days at school, the child realizes that his life has elements in common with the lives of countless people whom he never sees, and that new wonders, new ties, and new responsibilites are to be shown him as he goes on. School is a Friendly World. He has no cause to know that injured resentment which lay at the root of a large part of the insubordination of our fathers' days. Who wants to fight his best friend? Who wants to spoil tomorrow's fun?

The good and evil of toleration

Toleration is a much-lauded trait which has its good and its bad side. It has developed wholesomely into healthy ideas of the equality of the rights of men, into kindly sympathy with the unfortunate, into a surer sense of justice toward all, including those who oppose our interests or our views. It shows itself pathologically in a weak-kneed reluctance to interfere with those whose ways transgress the rights of others or threaten destruction to themselves. It permits a militant individualism that out-Rousseaus Rousseau. It hesitates ignominiously before the remedy of controlling the actions of those plainly unfit or unwilling to contribute to the social good. It endures inconvenience, lack of progress, and actual vice, because of a mistaken code which pays respect to things which are not respectable.

The influence of American democracy on school discipline

Two widespread and wholesome outgrowths of the spirit of toleration are democracy and altruism. (Democracy, too many-shaded a word ever safely to be said without definition, is used in the sense of equality of opportunity for all.) The feeling for equal opportunity and equal rights, which grew almost into the semblance of a national religion with the westward expansion following the War of 1812, and which has never wholly lost that exalted aspect, has given its share to the change in methods of school discipline. It was as incompatible with that fine reverence paid the teacher in German schools, as was the American master's limited training and uncertain social position. It made it impracticable for the schoolmaster to be a monarch; for no man, however kingly, could exercise kingly prerogatives over a roomful of pupils toward whom one of his chief duties was the exposition of the Spirit of '76. Denied by the logic of his position more arbitrary methods, the American schoolmaster, and more particularly the American schoolmistress, has developed in a wonderful way a kind of relation between teacher and pupils which is a new thing in the world.

The American school spirit

It is, moreover, a very fine thing, embodying more of the ideal spirit of education than ever appeared in the schools of the past. It premises a friendly leadership, appealing to the interests and ambitions of the pupils, developing in its best phases a sense of honor, of *noblesse oblige*, almost unique, by conceding their essential equality. This spirit grew up for the most part in the West, an instinctive and wise response to the situation in a new and over-lusty country, and had become a tradition before the machinery of organized society gave to the schools that solid backing which they now generally enjoy. *The combination of the two, the reenforcement of friendly leadership by unquestioned authority, gives an ideal condition for effective school discipline.*

The altruistic and socializing tendencies of today have worked in numberless ways to modify school discipline. The doctrines of Froebel, long accepted in theory, must wait before their full realization for a more general acceptance of social rather than individualistic motives. But the study of social ideals, extensively carried on by teachers, will find expression in the daily conduct of their classrooms. That children are social beings, to be developed under social influences, employing social relationships, and destined for social service, must inevitably introduce into schoolroom practice an element of coöperation once undreamed of.

The cultural ideal and discipline

In these days when vocational education looms so large, it is hard to realize that the cultural ideal is really growing in American schools, and influencing methods of control. It is true that the school systems brought from Europe by our ancestors were originally intended only for the children of the well-to-do. But it was the deliberate purpose of our forebears to adapt them to the needs of all the children of all the people, and this end has been largely accomplished. To use the schools for the practical training of children for their future vocations is no new ideal in America; it is only the efficiency that approximates realization which is new. From the first, the Western frontiersman sent his boy to school that he might get on in the world when he grew up; and his girl, that she might teach at first, thus proving her ability to take care of herself, and later that she might "marry well." The purposes of our schools were frankly utilitarian in the West, where most things, in fact, had to show a utilitarian reason for being in order to survive. The rapidly advancing frontier had small patience with the purely ornamental, and small understanding of the finer æsthetic and spiritual aspects of life. Appreciation of these things came, as they always have on the earth, with the assurance of provision for material needs.

When Latin and Greek were vocational subjects

As an older type of civilization has replaced the conditions of the frontier in America, cultural ideals, without replacing utilitarian ones, have come to take their place with them. The decay of interest in the classics does not disprove this. A large proportion of the classical students of an earlier day were ministerial aspirants; Latin and Greek were part of their professional equipment. With students of law and medicine, they studied the classics for the same purpose that today sends an agricultural student to the chemical laboratory. In a large majority of cases the desire for culture was a secondary motive where it existed at all. But the agricultural student now takes three or four years' work in English, and that avowedly mainly for its cultural value. Slowly, steadily, standards of culture are rising in the country as a whole, as any observant man past his fiftieth year will bear witness.

Culture and discipline

This growth of the cultural ideal, which does not supplant but does supplement the lately-stimulated and increasingly-realized vocational ideal of school usefulness, is exercising its own good influence on methods of school discipline. We are importing, with other once despised British institutions, the ideal of those English public schools which aim to "make gentlemen" of the boys who attend them. Manners and morals are taught more and more. The bully, be he teacher or pupil, is a passing factor. He has had his day. A better ideal of manliness has rid the schoolroom of his presence; a higher state of culture has reacted to discountenance him. And his methods have gone with him — a good riddance.

Signs of the times

All the change in disciplinary methods is registered, for the justification of optimists, in ways that he who runs may read. It is patent in the sometimes foolish legislation against corporal punishment, a thoroughgoing reaction often productive of more harm than good. It shows in the attitude of the public, in that of educational bodies, and in the press. It has helped to establish special schools for incorrigibles and abnormal children, where severe treatment may be administered when advisable without demoralizing effects upon normal children. Above all, it is supplying courses which have an intrinsic appeal, to children who respond naturally and eagerly to this new "square deal."

CHAPTER VI

THE PRESCRIPTION OF DISCIPLINARY ACTIVITIES

The formal discipline controversy

ONE who is not a psychological expert approaches the question of the reality of discipline with a diffidence appropriate to those traditional spots whereupon angels fear to tread, and where trespass may call down upon one the proverbial alternative appellation. Upon the battlefield of Formal Discipline many a wise man has met defeat; and many a teacher, confident of his ground because of his own unscientific observations and the traditions of his cult, has been appalled and discomfited by the learned. For the warning of the wise be it said, therefore, that the conclusions in this chapter are based, truly or falsely as the case may hereafter be shown to be, upon the author's understanding of the probable facts as to the reality of formal discipline. These facts can not be said to be definitely established, although supported by some fairly conclusive experiments and an immense popular conviction, growing from common experience and tradition. There is, of course, much scientific data to support an opposing opinion, and the whole question is in a condition of flux which precludes finality in the stating of conclusions.

A basic generalization

A statement of the conclusions upon which a working theory of prescriptive discipline may be based is as follows: *From a multitude of duplicated or similar experiences, a rationalized generalization or ideal is finally crystallized in the mind, from which new applications are readily made to suit new situations in which there are easily recognized similar elements.* The transfer of habit is not a direct one, but is practically sure if the disciplinary series has been thoroughly followed and its generalization secured by thoughtful consideration. A concrete illustration of this is the process of training children to a considerate silence in rooms in which other people are giving close attention to study or instruction. A child is trained to refrain from talking in school, and also in church; but unless he has, beside this concrete training, been led to abstract the general principle that wherever people are doing something that requires quiet for concentrated thought or reverent attention, others should yield them that quiet, he may disturb readers in a library until forced by others to stop talking. The boy who is corrected for throwing snowballs and paper-wads, and stops, but thinks himself blameless if he throws green apples instead, has not been led to generalize from his specific experiences.[1]

Definition

A disciplinary activity is any activity in which one engages, not primarily for its own sake or the sake of its immediate outcome, but for a desirable subjective effect — that is, for the training value it may have upon one's self. Since people are most easily influenced during the formative period of childhood, disciplinary activities are peculiarly valuable before maturity brings fixed habits and fundamental training has been acquired. Grown people, as well as thoughtful and earnest children, often make disciplinary requirements of themselves, that they may attain some end which they see to be desirable. But all young children, and a majority of older children and grown people, have neither the conception of their need nor the power of volition to choose for themselves the disciplinary activities which will contribute to their training. For all such, the forces of social authority prescribe disciplinary activities, justifying their course by the end of social advance, and exacting obedience to their requirement by whatever force it may be necessary to use.

---

[1] Ruediger, " Indirect Improvement of Mental Functions through Ideals," *Educational Review*, xxxvi: 364–71 (1908). A list of references bearing upon this controversy, so important in fixing upon justifiable methods in school management, is given in the classified bibliography in an appendix.

Illustrations

The prescription of disciplinary activities begins in babyhood and extends throughout the formative period. It is a universal law of social life, in fact, and to deny it is essential anarchy. In a majority of cases the demands of authority find ready response from children, for they are eager to have new experiences, full of curiosity, and anxious to please where kindness is shown. But where response is reluctant, there the prescription is still imperative. A mother, trying to teach her child to eat his bread-and-milk with a spoon, does not give up her requirement because the baby prefers to use his fingers; nor does the teacher yield to a boy's desire to go on playing ball when the school-bell rings for lessons; nor does the policeman permit a tipsy cowboy to shoot his revolver into the air on the main street of a town, even when that street is empty of traffic. No immediate harm is done by any one of these acts, but the children will never learn table-manners or lessons if permitted to follow their own wills, and the cowboy must be taught to respect the desire of men to feel safe from stray bullets.

Mental discipline

Discipline is a word of many applications. Mental discipline, that doctrine beloved of the older educators, that blanket justification for unlimited courses in mathematics and languages which could find excuse in neither pleasure nor use, is still far from being an exploded theory. Frowned upon by psychologists and grudgingly tolerated by practical experimenters, it still flaunts a triumphant tenure of popular belief in the faces of its enemies. A sort of universal intuition stands by it, and advises a suspension of sentence until a more advanced psychology may render decision. Meantime, its direct bearing on questions of school discipline is yearly becoming less, as curricula approximate more nearly a fulfilment of immediate and undisputed demands.

Discipline in habit formation

The great function of prescription is to make easy the forming of good habits. Habit-forming is by far the greatest part of elementary education. Reading, writing, numbers, singing, memorization of all sorts, manners, the skilful and graceful management of the body, cleanliness, orderliness — all are habits. They are acquired largely through prescription. Curiosity and the desire to excel, love of motion and instinctive imitation, all play their good parts in this pleasant drama of development, but prescription must be the prompter, and see that the play goes on when the actors forget their lines or refuse to carry on the "business."

Prescription of social aims

Unselfishness may become so thorough a habit that it ceases to be a virtue. If this condition of things were general we should be ushering in a millennium, but it is really rather rare as yet among individuals. Both as a virtue and as a habit, however, it must be suggested to the self-centered child, and when voluntary response fails, it should be prescribed. Consideration for others is not a superfluous virtue, but a duty. "Only those acts of kindness which come from a willing heart are truly virtuous" is a false sentiment. The most virtuous acts include those wrung from an unwilling heart by stern self-discipline or the authority of others. Consideration for others should find acknowledgment and appreciation, but it should also be expected and required. Lovely indeed is the child who loves to divide his candy among his brothers and sisters, but if he does not he may be required to, and so helped to form a specific habit of unselfishness. It is not claimed, of course, that these specific habits form general habits directly; but that their practice makes it easy to form other habits which grow out of general ideas easily formulated by the child to whom consideration has become habitual.

RACE EXPERIENCE AND ITS CRYSTALLIZATION IN PRESCRIPTION

Every father decides his boy's problems largely in the light of his own experience. He wishes his son to do what he did, if he imagines that those things helped him; or plans to enable his boy to avoid them, if he thinks they stood in his own way. So a group of men of similar experiences will prescribe for their sons those things which their joint experience dictates as wise. A man of influence and distinction, to whose opinions ordinary men defer, will probably think that the processes and experiences which made him a man of eminence, are most helpful to others. So Aristotle, founding a new school whose success was largely due to his use of the syllogism, prescribed syllogisms for others, and such was his authority that the youth of centuries were trained to reason in syllogisms when they should have learned to plow, to see, and to think.[1] In general, this is the history of curricula. The men of any given era rise to a certain accomplishment through hard experience and effort, and some one of them or a group of them crystallizes the typical experience by which the highest attainment of their time and class has been reached, in a prescribed course of study for youth. This is adopted, usually after some delay. Once adopted, it becomes entrenched in tradition, and only when its inadequacy becomes apparent to even the most careless, is it changed by a new leader or group of leaders to a new set of requirements.

The present conflict with prescription

Such conflicts between the established order and the insurgents in education have occurred more than once. The Renaissance in its stimulus to the studies of the humanities is the most notable example. There is such a conflict today, and the effect upon education and civilization promises to be no less far-reaching.

The revolt of the pupil

Two distinct elements may be discerned in the present conflict with the conventional school program. There is, first, the conflict of individual experience, and its resultant conception of need, with the prescribed course. This is rife among the people, both parents and children. The children can not see how all the things they are called upon to study are going to be of use to them in the future, or pleasant at the time. They may seek the interest that lessons lack in illegitimate fun, or find a sweet revenge in unlawful deeds. Finally, when the call of more alluring interests and the compulsory age limit coincide, they leave school altogether. Parents, who find that the schools give their children no direct training for the work they are to do in the world, add their objections.

---

[1] Aristotle, *The Organon.*

The revolt of the schoolmen

Moreover, the most advanced educators agree with the common people that the old prescriptive courses are inadequate. Such men acknowledge that the claim of the child and his parent is well founded; but they go farther, and looking into the future, say that radical changes must be made if the school is to play its part faithfully in the world. Such men are usually those for whom the schools, in the days when they trained the intellect almost exclusively, were well suited as a means of development. They are not those whose personal ends conflict with the conventional program. But, with a previsionary and constructive conception of a new social order, they have a new conception of the need which the schools exist to satisfy. They join the number of those who demand that schools prescribe and furnish new studies to suit the specific needs of their pupils.

The teachers' part

The prescription of courses, then, while justifiable and necessary, is at present mistaken in many of its applications, and results in waste and loss. Teachers face the task of readjusting requirements. Their work is to select from the whole mass of experience and knowledge that has accumulated in the world, not those experiences and that knowledge that served a past generation best, but what will be most valuable to the children now growing up. Teachers are the race-givers, the almoners of humanity in its largess to its children.

The object of prescription

But prescription by others is at best but a temporary expedient, one great aim of education being to develop the child to the point where he will select his own. As children grow older, also, the proportion of activities of a strictly disciplinary nature grows less and less, while those with a direct, obvious, immediately desirable outcome increase. When shall the child begin to choose his own? When shall the teacher cease to select and prescribe, and confine himself to teaching what the child elects to learn? Clearly, the arts and knowledge which ordinary intercourse demands, must be acquired, whether the pupil wants them at the time or not. Reading, writing, the use of the language, useful computations, and a reasonable knowledge of geography, civics, and history are necessary foundations that good citizenship, irrespective of vocation or position, requires.

Beyond that, the prescription of specific pursuits may be limited to a choice of means to an end chosen by the pupil, if the pupil is ready or able to make his choice. But if neither necessity nor interest dictate an immediate specialization, common sense suggests that a general course, which has a maximum of points of contact with various special fields, offers the best work for the student until he is ready to choose his own work. Those subjects which aim to supply universal needs are to be prescribed, the prescription ending at the point of departure for the elected field of special endeavor, which may or may not be immediately upon acquiring the educational fundamentals.

Application to discipline

The bearing of all this upon the question of discipline in its narrower sense of the good order of the school is twofold. It predicates the right of the teacher or other school authorities to prescribe whatever in the way of behavior may be necessary for the good of the pupils and of the school; and it indicates what some of those requirements may be. All the three varieties of prescriptive activities, giving mental, habitual, and altruistic discipline, suggest what is to be required of pupils. The list given below is not at all exhaustive, nor are all its items applicable to all schools or at all times. It would be very foolish to require, for instance, silence and a comparatively fixed bodily position in a class at bench-work.

The outcomes

The prescription of whatever makes for the development of all-round social efficiency, both in and beyond the school, is included among those phases of training which are universally needed and universal in their application. Whatever else may be included or excluded in making out the school program of any child, this must be regarded as its first, its most necessary feature — that training which will develop him as a social being, coöperating willingly with the forces that make for social unity and progress. With this in mind, we may sum up the desired outcome of disciplinary prescription for conduct as follows:

1. The ability to control the body in all its activities — an ability that does away with scuffling, shuffling, lunging, lounging, wriggling, as well as other evils springing from imperfect control.
2. The ability to keep silence under provocation.
3. The ability to conform readily and cheerfully to the uniform requirements of the school.
4. The ability to submit every decision as to conduct to rigid ethical standards.
5. The ability to yield first place to another, without show of resentment or jealousy.
6. The ability to hold first place without a sign of arrogance or condescension.
7. The ability to yield to the opinions of others with grace and consideration, where no ethical sacrifice is involved.

SUMMARY

The necessity of prescription

There is probably no direct transfer of habits or skills; but from many concrete examples a principle may be abstracted, which is readily applied to a new situation in which there are elements similar to those already met. Using this as a basis for accepting the possibility of discipline, we may engage in any kind of disciplinary activity that will train manners, mind, hand, and heart. It is the duty of maturity and experience to prescribe for children those activities which seem best calculated to develop them most wisely and fully; and to force them, if necessary, to follow the course of training thus laid down for them. It is soft pedagogy and foolish indulgence which seeks to avoid this duty. The natural desires and tastes of children are not necessarily a true index to what they should do. All children, whether they want to or not, should be made to acquire the arts and information and moral qualities which will make them useful and valuable citizens, if by any means these can be imparted to them.

Prescription must supply real needs

The prescription of educational activities for children is based on the experience of man in the past, and may not always be suited to the needs of the present or the future. Children and their parents object to present requirements because they do not fulfil their immediate wishes or needs; far-sighted thinkers understand that they are inadequate for the needs of both present and future. We are at present in the midst of a readjustment of prescription, a remaking of curriculums.

The object of prescription by others is to develop the individual to the point at which he may wisely decide for himself what he should do to gain his ends. When the pupil in school has reached this point the teacher should abdicate his power in favor of the pupil's self-government. Prescription for conduct (the phase of prescription which directly affects discipline) aims to develop self-control, consideration for others, unselfishness, and definite ethical standards.

CHAPTER VII

THE DISCIPLINARY PROCESS

Definition

THE word *discipline* is used in ways so various that it is necessary to define one's use of it in any given discussion. In its widest application it covers the field of all training activities whose end is not the immediate result attained, but that of strengthening some ability, perhaps quite different from the special phase of ability exercised. When used thus with the end of training abilities not directly involved in the activities in question, it is known as Formal Discipline, and has been the bone of a notable amount of contention as to whether it exists or not. Used in its most narrow sense, on the other hand, Discipline refers to specific corrective measures for infringements of definite points of school law or custom. In this book, generally, its use lies between these two extremes, and indicates any and all measures for the better conduct of the school with reference to the order and behavior of his pupils. It does not apply, except indirectly and by association, to questions of scholarship, save where such application is especially noted.

Positive and negative discipline

The first requisite for really successful discipline is that it be conceived in both its positive and its negative, and in its constructive and its reconstructive aspects. Virtue has been for a long time considered chiefly in its negative, thou-shalt-not applications, and has but recently established its positive, thou-shalt phase in the hearts of men. As we find goodness taking on new values when seen in its entirety, so also discipline, which is the process of developing goodness, finds new values when seen in its completeness. The teacher's part is not only to inhibit evil, but to build up tendencies to the right response to stimuli, to form ideals that beckon and prejudices that restrain, all contributing to the making of strong, normal, good boys and girls. This is the disciplinary process.

The ideal in the teacher's mind

Since every objective act is first a subjective act — that is, since everything that we can see, hear, or do must first be thought out in some one's mind — the first step in the disciplinary process is to form an ideal of good conduct. It must exist first in the mind of the teacher, who later works out his ideal by adapting his own and his pupils' activities to that end. The adequate ideal is the result of observation and of constructive combination. That is, the best ideal of school conduct is made by seeing good conduct in many schools, and then putting together the elements which will fit best the needs in the particular school which the teacher has in mind in constructing his ideal. Good conduct in a manual training school and in a classical school are probably two very different kinds of behavior, for behavior should be suited to the ends sought and the means used. The ideal of many teachers is one of observation only, a copy of the conduct of the schools with which they are acquainted. If they have attended poor schools, or schools whose methods and aims are different from those over which they are to preside, the ideal will be a poor one, and their efforts are probably foredoomed to failure. They should add to the pictures of school-conduct which their experience has given them, new pictures of their own construction, based upon the needs and aims of their own school, and those to be had from schools of recognized merit.

Visiting schools

This is not an easy thing for young and untrained minds to do, and probably even the best thinkers among teachers depend for their ideals of conduct chiefly on observation and experience. The importance, then, of visiting well-managed schoolrooms is apparent; and also the advantage of taking careful notes upon the details of management, the little devices for reducing noise and confusion and for making work pleasant and interesting. Then the teacher who is forming an ideal for his own use must adapt the good ideas he has gained to the situation in his school, building up a vivid picture of the orderly conduct of every exercise that enters into its work. He must not be content with a hazy idea of how things should be; his ideal must be definite, and as an aid to this it is advisable to write it out.

The ideal in the pupils' minds

Having thus created an ideal of good conduct in his own mind, the teacher's next step in the disciplinary process is to induce his pupils to share it with him, that they may work with him toward its realization. This step may be called Establishing the Ideal, to distinguish it from the first step of Creating the Ideal. There are four means of establishing an ideal of conduct in the minds of pupils, not to be used separately or in sequence, but constantly, simultaneously, and in numberless ways and combinations. The one in most constant use by the best teachers is that of assuming that pupils are in thorough sympathy with the teacher's wishes and plans, and are anxious to do everything they can to make the school a success. The power of suggestion is used to strengthen the hold of the ideal. No hint of the possibility of disobedience or other evil action comes from the teacher; she recognizes evil only when it actually appears before her, demanding correction. In this way an atmosphere of unity is created which gives the ideal a good chance of realization.

Assumption

Definition and clarification

When, however, pupils do not fall in readily with the plans made for them, suggestion and assumption must give way to more definite means. The teacher finds it necessary then to state clearly just what is expected, and sometimes it is wise to keep this expectation before the pupils pretty constantly for some time, that they may adopt it in its proper form — and not in some vague misconception of their own — into their conscious scheme of conduct. For instance, the teacher of a country school found that her pupils were in the habit of walking into the schoolroom with muddy boots and shoes, thus covering the floor with an unsightly mass of dirt within a few moments after school had opened in the morning. She secured a thick mat and directed them to wipe their feet upon it as they entered. They did this cheerfully, but gave to each foot so perfunctory a wipe that the floor was in almost as poor a condition as before. Noting the virtuous complacency with which they carried out her request, the teacher decided that the trouble lay in their inadequate ideal of cleanliness. She thereupon made *her* ideal very clear by tacking up a little card over the door-mat. It read:

> Wipe your feet until there is no more mud to come off. The floor under your desk should not show even *one muddy streak.* Can you do as well as that?

The pupils made an attempt to meet her requirements, and soon became interested in keeping the floor about their desks clean and neat. About the middle of the winter term the teacher took down the card, and found that the habit of cleanliness was established. Her ideal had become the ideal of her pupils, after she had made it too definite and clear to be ignored.

Correlation A third way of establishing the ideal is to correlate it with other ideals already established. The teacher who taught her pupils to wipe their feet before entering the schoolroom, for instance, might have connected her ideal for a schoolroom floor with the ideal for a parlor floor which their mothers had taught them at home. All of the children in such a school had probably been taught to have a care for the floor of the "best room"; and the schoolroom is the "best room" of the school. An ideal once established becomes a norm by which new ideals are measured and judged. Johnny thinks it reasonable to conform to the request that he should not whisper in school, because he has already been taught that he must not whisper in church. Marie has learned that eating in school interferes with good work and is a breach of manners, and when her teacher tells her that gum-chewing is just as bad, she believes her, because there is a similarity between the two acts that she can see. Analogies appeal strongly to children. "You wouldn't think of doing that in church," and "Would your mother allow you to act in that way at home?" are cogent reasons with children. The correlation of specific requirements works toward a more conscious generalization, by which finally definite principles of duty may be developed. That the same obligations of courtesy, gentleness, purity, and unselfishness hold in school, home, playground, and street; that we owe respect and consideration to all, equally, without regard to station or possessions; and that good conduct is not to be changed because there is no one to see and give it credit — these are truths that the correlation of conduct-ideals will tend to establish.

Illustration

A fourth and very effective means of establishing the ideal is by illustration. Children learn best by means of concrete examples, and every instance of good conduct, of the right response to a given situation, that can be brought to a child's notice, becomes a precedent for future action. The teacher who is trying to form good street-manners, for instance, not only explains to her pupils the correct usage, but selects a few of the brightest and best-bred children to illustrate it. They play at taking a walk, and learn to greet and salute each other courteously when they meet. One boy hobbles along as a feeble old man, and is helped over a crossing by a strong and clear-sighted boy. An old woman spills a bag of apples on the sidewalk, whereupon two little girls gather them up and restore them to her. A stranger inquires the way to a public building, and is directed by three boys who leave their marbles to help him. Little folk like this sort of dramatization, which makes the ideal of conduct vivid and therefore impressive; and are able to reproduce the actual motions that they have seen, when they have not the initiative to formulate a response for themselves. The action is reduced to a mechanical formula so far as its physical phase is concerned, thus making the subsequent habit-forming immensely easier.

Realization requires coöperation

The third step in the disciplinary process is Realizing the Ideal. In this final step of realization, which is of course the determining element in the condition of the school, there are combined the efforts of both pupil and teacher. The pupil contributes inclination and will,[1] the teacher a knowledge of ways and means. And since conduct is so largely pure habit, the greater part of his direction is nothing but a supervision of habit-forming. This process, with its complemental one of habit-breaking, has been thoroughly described in many books, but may be repeated here, since no repetition can ever over-emphasize the importance of this fundamental process in education.

How instinct leads to habit

Instinct is the starting-point in habit-building, although many habits are only an artificial inhibition of instinct. Instinct brings about certain movements, which, being satisfactory, are repeated. For instance, the little boy's curiosity leads him to watch the growth of a colored picture on the blackboard, and from the instinctive attention which he gives at first, the teacher develops a habit of attention to whatever is placed upon the board. The act which instinct has initiated becomes easier with each repetition, until it becomes automatic, and a habit is established. The secret of the transition from the instinctive response to a stimulus, to a real habit, is the pleasure of the first and subsequent responses. If a response gives pleasure, it is repeated. If it gives pain, it is avoided. The significance of this law to the teacher is, of course, that he may so control conditions that the instinctive responses to stimuli in the schoolroom have pleasant or painful consequences, according to the desirability or non-desirability of the habits that result.

---

[1] Bagley, *Educative Process*, p. 214; Perry, *Management of a City School*, p. 247.

A good beginning

A child on his first day at school has a pencil, which was given him to use when all the pupils had their writing exercise. When the pencils are gathered up, however, his acquisitive instinct prompts him to cling to his; he wants to take it home. An inexperienced teacher, anxious to please the child and avoid an unpleasant scene, might let him take the pencil home, but a wiser one expresses her disapproval or even displeasure, and insists on its return to the box. The unpleasant effect of the teacher's disapproval tends to inhibit the desire to take the pencil home, and to give the instinct of imitation, by which he puts his pencil where the other children have put theirs, a chance to function. If the teacher rewards his initial act with approval, he will repeat it for the same approval, until he has formed a habit of conformity with regard to pencils.

Later, habits develop themselves by combination into other habits, often directed by new instincts that appear from time to time. The fundamental instincts continue to give motives for new adjustments and new habits. Teachers must know what these instincts are and how to use them, for there is never a time when habit becomes entirely distinct from its instinctive basis, or when helpful instincts may not be utilized to supplant the responses whose resultant habits are bad. Instincts have been classified as egoistic, social, moral, æsthetic, and intellectual. Professor E. A. Kirkpatrick[1] classifies them as self-preservative, parental, social, adaptive (curiosity, imitation, play), regulative (referring to duty), and a set of miscellaneous instincts which include those of construction and expression, rhythm and migration.

Steps in habit-building

The knowledge of instincts gives one an inventory of possible means of initiating habits. The actual process of habit-building, as analyzed by modern psychologists, falls into these successive steps on the part of the teacher:

1. Clarification of the ideal — giving the child to understand exactly, clearly, just what is expected of him.

2. Securing thoughtful, conscious repetitions of the act that is to be made a habit. Dr. Bagley especially insists upon the *attentive* repetition, which he shows to be necessary where the habit to be taught is in opposition to natural tendencies — that is, to instinct, to the line of least resistance.[2]

3. Permitting no exceptions until the habit has become automatic.

---

[1] *Fundamentals of Child-Study*, pp. 51–63.

[2] *Classroom Management*, page 16.

4. Repeating the drill at ever-lengthening intervals until there can be no question of the establishment of the habit.

Exceptions

The shibboleth of success lies in the third of these steps. Here is where teachers fail. They become tired, or change their minds, or decide that they have been too strict when children complain of the standard set. Even those who understand the importance of persistence are sometimes prevented from keeping up the effort by a pressure of work. Some indulgent mother says "unsympathetic," and the requirement is weakened or withdrawn. A lazy boy insists that he can't, and the foolish teacher believes him, or at least washes his hands of the responsibility of making him. But the really sympathetic teacher is he who foresees the demands that will be made upon his pupils in their maturity, and prepares them for that trial. He may be Spartan in method, for perseverance and unbending loyalty to the ideal require a sacrifice of present pleasure to future gain.

Reasons for failure

The examples of failure at this point are numberless; they account for probably the great majority of disciplinary breakdowns that are the teacher's fault. A teacher directs that there be no whispering during a recitation, but ignores the whispered inquiry of the star pupil rather than interrupt a good recitation. The demand was probably unwise, but not nearly so much so as the permitted exception. He says that there is to be no pushing in the line when school is dismissed, but being tired at four o'clock winks at the offense of the boy who punches his classmate in front of him as he reaches the door. He tries to teach his pupils to say "there is not" rather than "there ain't," and "I saw" rather than "I seen," but draws the line at interrupting a fluent oral composition to substitute the good form for the bad. Possibly the spirit and pleasure of the recitation are worth more than the grammar of the speaker; but it is certain that grammatical forms will never be learned unless the teacher puts them first, concentrates upon them, until they are mastered.

Economy in habit-formation

This drill work should be done as far as is possible in the lower grades, where the process need not be doubled — that is, where bad habits need not be unlearned in addition to the formation of good ones. The process of "breaking" habits is one that is called into requisition almost constantly, however, owing to the lack of uniformity and excellence in our school standards. Children are allowed to do some things in the fond supposition that they are permissible acts, which a teacher with higher standards can not think of permitting. The habit already fixed must be replaced by another. The process is similar to that of learning a habit where no conflicting usage exists, except that consciousness must be more alive and attentive at the point of actual substitution. There is first the forcible presentation of the new ideal of conduct. Then the thoughtful, attentive beginning of the new habit, with the guiding authority and remembrance of the teacher constantly at hand to prevent lapses, or to secure an unpleasant result if lapses occur. Third, the continuation of the active process until it is really complete — until an exceptionless habit is fixed.

Preventing lapses

The methods of preventing the exceptions that undermine the good work and mar its effectiveness are based upon the psychological law that unpleasant consequences tend to prevent the repetition of any given act. Usually it is not enough simply to remind a child that he has forgotten; the results of forgetting must be made painful, so that there is a real reaction from the forbidden act. Here, then, is a use for punishment, a place where it has a very real and necessary function. There needs to be a painful association established with the forbidden act, an association which must come, as a rule, *ex machina* from the teacher.

An illustration

A boy who had been under the care of a governess was put into the public school. He was a bright boy and had a good disposition, but his training was, of course, faulty on the side of socialization. He could not break himself of the habit of speaking aloud whenever he thought of something he wanted to say, for he had of course had this privilege with his governess. Finding after a few days that the school atmosphere and customs in themselves did not effect a change of habit, his teacher explained to him the standard of the school in this respect and the reasons for it, with much emphasis upon its advantages to everybody. She called his attention to the value of the self-control that was developed by conformity to this standard, so that the boy saw that there was something to be gained for himself as well as for the school. This was done in a well-planned private talk, for no one else in the school needed just that guidance at that time. It would have been embarrassing and unfair to have taken time from a class exercise for so long and personal an interview. The private talk has great value in giving to the coming effort the importance that will give it a strong send-off, an initiation of sufficient force to carry it well on its way. This boy felt, after the talk, that he was undertaking an enterprise of importance. It was to be his chief business in life for a time to effect the good habit that the teacher required of him. He was told that he must think of it constantly when he was in the schoolroom, and encouraged further to emphasize it by keeping a record of his progress, to be reported nightly both to his teacher and to his father, whose interest the teacher secured by telling him of the work to be done.

Enlisting the child

Where children are thoughtful and sincerely anxious to conquer bad habits, a penalty for lapses may be arranged with them. They may agree that giving up ten minutes of some favorite recreation every time the sequence of the good habit is broken, will help them; or that they will not be candidates for team positions if they forget more than a reasonable number of times. The process of habit-forming becomes in such cases an absorbing game, with every condition in favor of progress. Unfortunately, many children are not disposed to help in their own regeneration in this delightful fashion. They are stupid, selfish, lazy, misled at home or by their associates, or otherwise unable consciously to coöperate, thus throwing the responsibility more heavily upon the teacher. Even in such cases, with his knowledge of the unchanging laws of habit as his strong ally, the teacher is able to accomplish results. He must see to it that the effects of each lapse from the new standard are unpleasant enough to tend toward inhibition. The checks used may range all the way from a slight reproof before the class to isolation, withdrawing the privilege of recitation, suspension from a school office or honor, or even corporal punishment in extreme cases. Two characteristics they must always have; they must be sure and they must be immediate. An uncorrected lapse grows strong and multiplies itself.

A punishment that wore out

The boy who spoke aloud had had so little practice in self-control of this kind that the teacher felt surer of results in keeping the management of penalties in her own hands. She adopted the method of making him stand for ten minutes each time he spoke aloud without permission. This reminded him forcibly of his lapse, and carried with it an unpleasant consciousness of the more or less scornful and amused regard of his schoolmates. Old habit was stronger than the discomfort of this scrutiny, however. He grew used to the position, and after a few days it became tolerable, then a joke. By a process of accommodation, not uncommon, the oft-repeated disgrace ceased to be a disgrace, and so ceased to be a deterrent. Whereas at first he rose slowly when bidden and stood with shamed eyes glued to a book, he later reached the point where he jumped up promptly after one of his breaches of the law and grinned cheerfully at his friends, including the teacher, as he took what had ceased to be a punishment. Seeing this, the astute instructor changed the treatment. She adopted the opposite course, and instead of making him conspicuous in the schoolroom, eliminated him from it. He was given a desk in her office, where he sat for a half-day after each offense. As the association with other children after a rather lonely little boyhood was the greatest charm of the public school to this particular child, this punishment was very effective and quickly gained results. It had to be administered only three times, with one repetition a fortnight later than the rest, to break the bad habit and establish thorough self-control so far as talking in school was concerned.

The place of judgment

Good behavior is not altogether a matter of habit, although habit is by far the greatest part of it. There come to all pupils occasions when a decision must be made for which they can call up no precedent. Here a judgment must take the place of an habitual response to a usual situation. Even in this case, of course, the mental attitudes and processes that decide the answer given are largely habitual; but in a narrow sense the decision is new. With no previous experience to guide him in making his decision, the tempted boy must fall back upon some general principle or else blindly follow instinct. If general principles in the form of axioms have not been given him, and so drilled into consciousness that they come readily to mind in an emergency, instinct, always with us, directs the decision. The instinctive response is rarely the best one, and so a point is lost for good conduct.

To obviate this danger teachers, parents, clergymen, and children's writers seek to instill moral prejudices and ideals. All morals-and-manners instruction has the double purpose of providing ready-made responses to the situations that may be foreseen, and guiding principles for the decisions that no foresight can safely predicate. The situations of a student's everyday life at school may be pretty accurately provided for by a wideawake administration; but even if every one could be met by the appropriate habit, the problems which face students when they leave school and enter new environments would have no guarantee of wise solution without some more general provision. Strong moral prejudices against evil, strong convictions of duty, give a basis for the right kind of judgment. Practice in making judgments under a supervision that restrains action from unwise ones, develops courage and confidence in their ability to decide the questions that come to students. A country boy, transplanted to a school in a crowded district of New York, was adopted by a city gang badly in need of recruits, and introduced to metropolitan ways. Two of the leaders, as a special favor, showed him some tiny white tablets which, they said, would make him feel better than he had ever felt. The country boy had never heard of heroin, and had no idea of the danger involved in taking the tablets. But as he weighed the advantages of conformity with his instinctive hesitation to eat something new and strange, there came to him an axiom, repeated to the point of triteness by the teacher of his old country school:

The mission of prejudice

"Don't do anything you are not *sure* is right."

The injunction, coming readily to mind because it had been so thoroughly drilled into his consciousness, saved him from making a great mistake. Without it, he would have yielded to the instinctive desire to receive the approbation of his new friends.

SUMMARY

The disciplinary process is the establishing and realizing of an adequate ideal of right conduct. The ideal must exist first in the teacher's mind, then in the minds of her pupils. Teacher and pupils coöperate in bringing about the realization of the ideal, which involves the processes of creating good habits and curing bad ones, and of establishing standards that will enable pupils to make the right decisions when new situations are presented to them, for response to which they have no precedent. Punishment is an aid to good discipline when used to discourage wrong responses to stimuli and so to build up good habits.

CHAPTER VIII

THE SPIRIT OF THE SCHOOL

THERE is a subtle spiritual essence of all that goes on in a school, both in the minds of teacher and pupils and in every open and hidden act, which may never be exactly described or analyzed, but which the most inexperienced observer feels when he enters a schoolroom, and which gives to those used to comparison and judgment of schools a very fair index of what is going on there. It is called the school spirit, and so potent is it that it has been known to change the whole attitude and behavior of a student transferred from one school to another, in an incredibly short time. It is the teacher's best friend or his worst enemy. No consideration of discipline could possibly ignore its importance in fixing the status of the teacher and his wishes, and the success attained by the school.

Elements in determining school spirit — In the teacher

The spirit of the school is the atmosphere produced by the combination of the attitudes of the people who compose and influence it — the teacher first of all, then the pupils, the parents, and the community. The condition of the environment also has much to do with it. A popular fallacy exists to the effect that the teacher alone is responsible for success or failure; and many a teacher has borne praise or blame — usually blame — for conditions for which he was not chiefly, if at all, responsible.[1] In the teacher, the most important element is the attitude in which he approaches his work. Then his natural ability, his preparation (which gives confidence because of knowledge, trained perceptions, sympathy, and appreciation), his happiness in his work, and his fitness for the special place in which he finds himself, all enter into the making of the atmosphere of his schoolroom. The last point is one of special importance. Many teachers are partial failures because they are misplaced. Moved from the country to town, from town to country, from primary to grammar grade, from the charge of a room to special work, teachers who are dragging out a conscientious martyrdom would become really happy in their work. Add to these his ability to coöperate, his social consciousness, and the elements that make up the teacher's schoolroom personality are fairly included.

In the pupils

Among the pupils, respect for the teacher is the first element which contributes to a good school spirit. Then comes respect for the rights of other pupils, a real happiness in the work done, good training in habits which fix ideas of propriety and ideals of conduct, and a distinctly formulated aim in each pupil's mind, emphasizing the real object of the school, the purpose for which he is there at all.

In parents

Thorough respect for the school and coöperation with it are the elements contributed by parents. When extended throughout the community there is a solidarity of purpose concerning the school which reacts upon all who work in or attend it. "School spirit" is present in that community, and school progress is bound to come there. A district or town or city that knows its schools and is proud of them, that turns out to school elections and to parents' clubs and last-day programs, furnishes the spiritual environment in which .schools flourish and bring forth good fruit, a hundred-fold.

---

[1] For an entertaining comment on this fallacy, see Mary C. Robinson, "Which Class?" in the *Atlantic Monthly*, February, 1912.

The school environment

The influence of physical environment upon the spirit of the school is incalculable. Self-respect and order, industry and courtesy, are very hard to foster in a tumble-down building or a dreary school yard. Districts or villages that have poor schools should clean up, paint over, plant out, and spend some money for new furniture and books. Teachers who can not arouse a real interest in their work should inaugurate a campaign of expenditure. People become vastly interested in a short time in things in which they have invested their money. If a teacher can induce the school board to spend enough money to arouse the ire of the richest farmer in the vicinity, and then set himself to prove that every dollar has been wisely spent and is returning big profits, he will have no reason to complain of lack of interest in his school. If the board will not or can not spend the amounts needed, let the pupils and teacher set to work to earn them; the coöperation involved will often begin a new order of friendly zeal in school things that the new treasures can scarcely improve.

Characteristics of a good environment

The environment should be, first of all, neat and clean. There should be no weeds harbored in the school yard, there should be good walks to the front door and to all out-buildings, scrapers at the entrances, and mats and brushes that dust and mud may be kept out of the study-room. A full cleaning-outfit is essential, and yet there are many country schools whose sole equipment is one broom and a duster furnished by the teacher. The vacuum cleaning system now to be had should be installed in every new building erected, as it not only cleans more thoroughly than any broom or brush can, but also raises no cloud of dust to settle on furniture or fill the lungs.

Helps to good order

Certain facilities for orderliness are next in importance. These include such things as glass-covered book-cases, stands for dictionaries and globes, boxes or cupboards for all working paraphernalia, and cases for umbrellas, rubbers, and lunch-baskets, or individual lockers in larger schools. The old-fashioned double seats, a formidable cause of bad order, are still to be found in many country and village schools. Up-to-date drinking arrangements, separate cloak-rooms for boys and girls, adequate toilet facilities, and room to carry on school work without crowding, are all helps to the content and smooth-running of the school, that make for a happy school spirit.

Comfort

Children can not be happy and contented unless they are comfortable. Cold feet and hands, ill fitting seats, and long formal exercises that tire the body unduly, produce an irritability that may easily show itself in fretful outbreaks or uncontrollable restlessness. Bad light, and above all bad air, are also responsible for a lack of good feeling, for unhappiness and discontent.

Beauty

Mere comfort, moreover, is not enough. The school environment should be really beautiful. To the initial requirements of cleanliness, order, and comfort should be added the charm of soft color, of lovely form and proportion in the school building and furniture, and the helpful suggestions of beautiful pictures and casts. Such beauty has a refining influence that nothing else can supply, and the pride in lovely things possessed in common is a strong tie between the members of the school. Children respond to beauty with reverent delight, sometimes when other means fail to arouse them.

These elements — characteristics of teacher, pupils, parents, the community at large, and the physical environment — all help to determine what the school spirit shall be. Let us now consider the ideal school spirit, that vivifying force which transcends rule and custom and makes of the pupil-teacher relationship a delight and an inspiration.

Its practicability

A fine school spirit is, like all fine results of patient labor, like all seemingly fortuitous gifts of sheer talent, far too subtle and complex a thing for accurate, cold-blooded analysis. It is a contagious infection, to be caught and carried in a happy moment, after many weeks, perhaps, have been vainly spent in trying to win it. It may come as a spontaneous reward for the fulfilling of conditions, as a rare song-bird chooses that garden for his home wherein is a bird-house built ready for him. It may grow slowly, supplanting old prejudices reluctantly surrendered, old notions that die hard; or come quickly, like a flower that wants only warmth and moisture to hasten bloom. However it may come, this is to be remembered; it is not, for all its rare power to turn school drudgery into delight, a chance gift from the gods, but a reward for straight thinking and earnest effort, a state of mind to be explained by definite psychological laws, a result of certain conditions that may be attained and controlled. There is nothing mystic and nothing fatalistic about it. Some teachers have a "knack" for attaining it quickly and with little effort, others must make a careful study of conditions and means before they can compass this end; but all earnest and big-hearted teachers may win it, and find in its presence the subtlest and ablest ally that teacher ever had.

"The greatest of these is charity"

Downright kindness, amiability, the desire to please and help, is the *sine qua non* for a good school spirit. No taskmaster teacher, setting himself sternly to secure a given requirement from his pupils, can hope to achieve the happiness in work that is its secret. He needs all the pride and pleasure that comes to the true enthusiast in any profession who has chosen his work wisely and pursued it earnestly. Then he needs consideration for others, quick sympathy and eager helpfulness. He must have love for his work, for his pupils, for all mankind. Teaching is a work that takes hold on all the multiform life of the world by all the tentacles thrust out by each pupil taught. It reaches out prehensile fingers of relationship into far and unknown regions, achieving a spiritual unity with unseen and unguessable phases of living. Far more potent than press or pulpit, teaching sends out, at four o'clock on five days of the week, its thousands upon thousands of unçonscious emissaries, to take an active part in moulding the life of the world. They carry with them the sensitive reactions of spirits impressionable to the treatment they have received, the spirit of the men and women who have had them in charge through the working day. Can any teacher refuse such a responsibility? Can any teacher tolerate pettiness, time-serving, prejudice, superficiality, when the cry of the world may be answered so helpfully through the children? Even where stern measures must be adopted, the spirit of love and helpfulness bears witness of itself. It can never be mistaken where it exists.

A mischievous fallacy

But the spirit of friendly helpfulness must be found also among the pupils, and among a working majority of them at that, if it is materially to dominate the methods and results. A very common maxim is that, since love begets love, pupils will invariably respond to the friendly and helpful spirit of a teacher with a friendly and docile attitude. This is not true. It is usually true, but there are cases where outside influences, adverse to the spirit of love, are stronger than that of a teacher. A really sincere and able teacher, indeed, may labor for years in a community without being able to produce a *general* social spirit, although his efforts may bring forth fruit in individual cases. But a spirit of love and helpfulness requires that the influential majority of any group agree in their attitudes. The influences of street and home and religion, or rather of religious teachings, have their part in determining the spirit of the school, as well as the attitude of the teacher. Given favorable conditions in these respects, the achievement of the object sought is easily within the teacher's power.

The spirit of work

A good school spirit is also a spirit of earnest, hard work. It recognizes a goal for the efforts of each, and sets out for that goal in sober earnest. The guide for this journey of achievement accepts no shoddy work, permits no flimsy excuses; his requirements are inexorable and his standards high. It is worth while to work under these conditions, with the knowledge that what is done is done with a purpose, is appreciated, is nicely appraised. The school is a factory[1] which produces ability and power as other factories produce doors and chairs and garments. But it is better than a factory, for the workers keep all they produce. They are capitalists, not hired workmen.

The inspiration of the worth-while

A lively conception of the bigness of the task is the greatest help in the development of a work-spirit in the school. The years of training are so few, the time so short, the need so great; the demands of life so varied, the opportunities so without number, and competition so keen — how can all the preparation needed be crowded into the limited years of school life? If any vision of the possibilities that lie beyond them can be given to little children, if any adequate idea of the rewards of effort, they will work to achieve the ends they see. In other words, motivation is the keynote of the industrial hum. Give incentives, and you receive back earnest work. Arouse the imagination by picturing the prizes to be gained, and the will is stimulated to attain them. The wondrous improvement noted in school spirit and coöperation where manual training, agriculture, and household science have been introduced into schools, is due chiefly to the fact that where before the connection between studies and future welfare had to be taken on faith in the wisdom of their elders, it is now patent to the mind of even the most sluggish. There is something "in sight" to be worked for. For those who think more abstractly or have work of another sort in mind for themselves, the new subjects have no such helpful influence. But in general it may be said that the spirit of work is the mental habit of holding the future above the present.

---

[1] Bagley, *Classroom Management*, page 4.

Obedience The habit of ready obedience gives unity and smoothness to all the working of the school. It depends largely upon the wisdom and tact of the teacher, who must give practice and reasonable directions if they are to be followed without question. Children obey a beloved teacher willingly, and one who is not beloved with at least a sense of justice and the reasonableness of conformity, if his demands are sensible and, to their thinking, justifiable. Parental and social influence has much to do with the existence of the spirit.

Joy Above all, if possible, there should be a spirit of joy in work and play. Just pure happiness, the pleasure of doing a good thing well and then entering with zest into the fun that is childhood's inheritance and right, is a real object to be gained. Joy is the normal condition of childhood and youth, and is the mother, as Goethe says, of all the virtues.[1] All the lovely colors and beautiful forms that our schoolrooms and school premises should boast, contribute to it. All the games and tasks of childhood and the sports and ambitions of adolescence should be tuned to it. To those to whom privation, or the lack of love and sympathy at home have decreed an unhappy childhood, the school, which is a second home that all may share, brings joy as it brings care and thoughtful guidance. It is properly a part of the life of the organization, one of its objects and aims.

---

[1] Adolf Langguth, *Goethe's Pädagogik*, Halle, 1886, page 194.

The fear of pleasure

There is a Puritanic distrust of pleasure, happily or unhappily almost disappeared from the field of social thought, that still lingers with some teachers. The writer remembers one young girl, teaching her first country school, who forbade her pupils their great annual bonfire, to which they looked forward all the year, because, as she said, the fun of that bonfire was the chief thought in their minds throughout the fall. The bonfire was, indeed, an annual festival, for which leaves and brush were gathered gleefully from the first day of school. It was probably a shameful economic blunder, but of that the teacher was as ignorant as the pupils. When the frosty days of late November came, usually just before the Thanksgiving recess, all the young people of the neighborhood gathered at the close of school to dance about the bonfire. It was made in the middle of a wide road, that the forests on either side might be safe; and all who wished to brought their suppers and staid until the last embers sent up their last sparks. The conscientious but misguided girl who forbade the yearly fire-festival not only destroyed the happiness and good-nature of her boys and girls for the term, but discouraged a custom that was growing into a tradition. We have far too little of festival-making of that sort in our country — the kind of festival that grows up spontaneously and is simple and innocent and at the same time recreative. Such play need not at all interfere with hard and purposeful work, as the inexperienced girl in this instance thought it would. The teacher who followed her had the good sense to reëstablish the great bonfire as a school institution, and to favor it frankly. When it was over, she filled the aching void of anticipation by planning an Arbor Day celebration in the spring, and her pupils found as much joy in poring over florists' catalogues and drawing the plans for a school garden as they had in raking leaves in the fall.

Growth of the play-spirit

The custom of making much of school holidays and celebrations is growing, and is at the same time becoming less formal, more spontaneous. The old set programs, in which every child appeared in his best clothes to "speak a piece," are being partially supplanted by happy out-of-doors excursions and indoor parties — a change that adds joy to the occasion for the children and vastly lessens the labor involved for teachers. Some schools are nourishing a particular festival, building up local tradition about some celebration of their own, often of a semi-historical nature. The pageant and the school-play combine pleasure and valuable training. Play-grounds have a recognized place in the educational scheme. The happiness of childhood is an object to which any number of thoughtful men and women give their time and attention. The spirit of joy is growing. Let it increase and multiply without stint.

Unity

All these elements in the ideal school spirit make up a mass of interests common to both teachers and pupils, what may be called the working unity of the school. By mutual concession and the reciprocity of effort that is possible where there are common ends to be gained, it may be won even from the conflicting ideas of youth untrained and of disciplined maturity. And this fine oneness of spirit is the secret of the most easily-maintained self-discipline that a school may know. It depends, says Arnold Tompkins, (1) on certain external conditions, (2) on the teaching process itself.[1] It eliminates that grim antagonism of teacher and pupils, growing out of the imposition of tasks whose end and justification children can not understand, which lies at the root of so large a part of school trouble. It is the solvent which, receiving the varied and seemingly irreconcilable elements that exist in every school, gives in the end a precipitate of new knowledge and power.

The secret of unity

SUMMARY

Teacher, parents, children, and community contribute to the spirit of the school, which depends upon the suitableness of the environment, and the good will, industry, obedience, and happiness that are in the school.

---

[1] *Philosophy of Teaching*, page 288. "A right act in school is one which secures, or tends to secure, unity between the mind of the teacher and the mind of the pupil in the act of instruction."

CHAPTER IX

AN ANALYSIS OF OFFENSES COMMON IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

THAT complexity of motivation which makes it difficult to deal justly with offenders against school order, makes it still more difficult to classify offenses. Any approximate analysis and classification of the forms of bad order in our schools, must inevitably be marred by countless overlappings and coincidences of character, motive, and result. The analysis which follows is necessarily incomplete, unavoidably inaccurate. Other bases of classification than the one followed, which is one of causal relation, were rejected because they involved a still greater degree of overlapping and duplication.[1] It is hoped that this analysis may help teachers to find causes, and thereby to provide remedies for the troubles in their own schools.

I. OFFENSES OF MISDIRECTED ENERGY

These are the first result of the imposition of a formal regimen upon active, untrained, life-and-motion-loving children. There is nothing vicious whatever in them.

---

[1] The Schoolmasters' Club of Minneapolis appointed a committee in 1911 to investigate the causes of student delinquency or failure in school work. The report of this committee, while not intended to bear especially upon the question of school discipline, is very helpful in giving an idea of the causes which, of course, affect both behavior and scholarship. It is given in the *School Review*, vol. 20 (1912) pp. 593–605.

They are the outcroppings of a vitality, a capacity for action, which can never quite be crammed into the measuring-cup of a school program. To reduce the amount of energy which runs to waste and becomes a nuisance, larger measuring-cups must be provided. Variety of occupation is today largely reducing the amount of this kind of disorder.

Whispering

Whispering is the first and most constant outlet for left-over interest and love of action. It becomes a more serious offense when persisted in because of a deliberate desire to bait the teacher, or when it is modified into a low rumbling monotone of communication. But in its simplest form it is merely a result of as yet imperfect self-control, and like all other offenses of this class, deserves patient and unfailing help from the teacher, who is guide and prompter in the process of habit-formation, which will finally do away with the evil.

Note-writing

Another form of communication which is more difficult to deal with is note-writing. The pupil who is too closely watched to whisper, or who fears the consequences of whispering, but who still has not more wholesome things to absorb his time and interest, takes to note-writing. The evil begins as soon as the art of expression by writing has been sufficiently mastered to permit its use — usually in the third grade — and continues through the high school. The notes commonly passed from hand to hand in school fall into these groups:

1. The note of resentment for punishment or correction. "She's a mean old thing. All that hair ain't hers. I know she wears a switch.

My mother says her father used to drive a brewery wagon, and now she puts on all sorts of airs." This is a sample of the way in which youth seeks sympathetically to bind up the wounds of hurt pride.

2. Notes concerning lessons — usually to ask for an assignment.
3. Notes planning festivities for after-school hours. "Ask your mother if you can come over to our house tonight after supper. My sister is home from boarding school and she knows lots of ways to have fun and scare the teachers."
4. Notes planning school mischief. "ive got a toad in my desk in a box you ask mary to show you where Histry lesson is and ill put toad on her desk an wen she hollers ill grab it and tell mis Smith it musta got in the window."
5. Gossiping notes. All sorts of school, family, and community news is distributed by busy little missives that slip about a schoolroom as if by magic. It could be told at recess just as well, but the risk of note-writing adds a romantic spice of adventure to this method of communication.
6. Notes asking or giving help in time of examination or quiz.
7. Love-notes. These often begin in the third grade, and continue with intermissions throughout the grades and the high school.
8. Obscene notes. A rather common manifestation of a problem which will be mentioned under the head of offenses due to physical causes.

Another outlet for pent-up energy is the soft humming or singing which is so hard to locate in a crowded room. Noisy movements, especially of the feet, and restless trips to wastepaper basket or drinking-fountain, are others.

Unconscious vandalism

Then there is the aimless, often unconscious marking of school furniture, which even grown people sometimes find a welcome exercise for idle hands. In its unconscious stages this vandalism is stimulated most by the sight of marks already existing, which it is very natural to deepen and strengthen if one has a pencil or knife in one's hand. This shows that the trouble is also largely imitative in origin.

Teasing

Pin-sticking, the throwing of paper-wads, tacks, or chalk, pulling girls' hair, and the toilet operations in which little girls engage with a naïve disregard to the publicity of their surroundings, are primarily the result of too much leisure. The pin-sticking and hair-pulling are examples of the satisfaction of a childish sense of fun, usually innocent enough in itself, which suggestion and guidance may turn into other channels. Some girls will continue to braid the hair of the girl in front of them at every opportunity, until other means of gratifying their love of the orderly and beautiful, together with a talk on the taste of such proceedings, substitute a better occupation.

II. Offenses of Resentful Resistance to an Imposed Control

There is today a great hue and cry all over the land against the formality and artificiality of our school curriculum. It is a law-abiding form of a resentment which has long existed, but which formerly showed itself in all forms of school lawlessness among pupils, and in lack of support and coöperation among parents. Having, in this day of self-analysis, found the nature and cause of its complaint, this resentment has emerged partly from the stage of its blind resistance, from the day of force, and comes out into the open with a manly statement of its grievance. It has not only become self-conscious, but it knows the remedy needed — a course of study, a school life, more closely answering the needs of the school children.

Why change comes so slowly

But the response to this demand on the part of school authorities is necessarily slow and imperfect. Even if they knew what equipment would be thoroughly adequate, the means to supply it are often wanting; while the inertia of accepted institutions is hard to overcome. There is a dearth of trained teachers for new work. There remains still in our schools, therefore, much against which pupils feel a spirit of resistance and even of rebellion. Some of this is just, much of it unjust, growing out of the notorious assurance of youth that it knows better what is good for it than all the sages. Moreover, there is a resentment which is conscious, a deliberate feeling of being imposed upon by powers which can not be overcome but which can be hampered in doing their will; and an unconscious, or rather unformulated resentment which feels the teacher to be an enemy and delights in teasing and tormenting him. The teacher represents to his pupils the whole system of prescribed training, and is therefore an object for the venting of their resentment at being forced to do what they dislike, and that for which many of them have no especial aptitude.

This resentment amounts in some schools to a definite and universal understanding. It was strong in the frontier schools of an earlier day, wherein tortured schoolmasters strove single-handed with the natural resentment of boys whose heroes were the rough subduers of the wilderness, and who were learning arts of the usefulness of which they had the strongest doubts. It is very strong today in some of the schools of our great cities, where large numbers of foreign children are being forced into the mould of little Americans, much against the grain of both their inherited customs and the contamination of their American city surroundings. And there is enough of it still in almost all of our schools, good and bad, town and country, to make it a chief problem for all teachers.

Disobedience and truancy

Deliberate disobedience is usually to be attributed to this source. When so founded, it is among the hardest of all to deal with, for it fortifies itself by an appeal to justice, to the moral law. The pupil often feels himself honestly aggrieved. A frank and impartial teacher must often in such cases feel himself in the wrong, being the tool of an inadequate and mistaken system. Besides the pupil who openly resists the control of the school, there is the one who avoids it by running away. Truancy is largely an imitative offense, but in its origin it is a protest against the system that keeps a boy pegging at books when nature and life are calling. Boys "play hookey" to go a-fishing, to earn money, or to play. The boy to whom the school program offers little intrinsic interest, may force himself to the distasteful task while cold weather lasts, but when spring arrives the call of real interests transcends the force of convention. One boy dares to express his idea of relative values by deserting school, and others follow. A series of school expeditions would answer the need of the boys and take away their ground for resentment, but few American teachers are trained to conduct such trips, while the American people look with suspicion upon what they regard as a shirking of the teacher's duty.[1]

"Breaking the will"

A great variety of offenses are due to the same grim antagonism, happily growing less and less as better conditions prevail. The necessity of "breaking the will," much preached to a former generation, forced many naturally sympathetic teachers to stern measures which inevitably aroused this feeling. Inventive childhood found a hundred ways, some of which have become traditional, in which to show it. They found that stamping, cat-calling, making faces, failing to hear directions, snow-balling, dragging the feet, eating in school, and countless other puerile amusements, annoyed teachers; and because they annoyed teachers, rather than because of any intrinsic pleasure in them, these offenses were committed. Weak teachers have had to endure them, while strong teachers have expended upon their correction an incalculable amount of energy sadly needed for better causes. At last the whole attitude which gave rise to them is being transformed by a multitude of changes in and additions to the curriculum, which are curing the idea that teacher and school are an unsympathetic despotism. To the same end, the untrained or time-serving teacher will in time give place to those whose friendly tact will entirely overcome the old resentment toward school and school requirements.

---

[1] Truancy in some city and in some country schools proves to be due to demands for work from the child by parent or guardian. This absence is not of course an offense on the part of the child, and should be corrected by bringing the proper pressure to bear upon those really to blame.

III. Offenses Due to Physical Conditions

A large proportion of offenses is due to preventable or controllable faults in the physical environment, or to peculiarities in the physical condition of pupils. The former yield to correction so generally that there is small excuse for their continuance; the latter are far more puzzling and difficult to deal with.

Results of the Physical Environment

Temperature

A pervading restlessness is a common indication that the schoolroom is either too warm or too cool. All teachers learn to make allowance for inattention and discontent, for wiggling and sputtering and disturbing trips to the cloakroom for wraps, when the room is below normal temperature; and for indolence and abstraction when it is too warm for comfort.[1] In country schools it is sometimes necessary to huddle the children closely about a red-hot stove to keep their toes from being frosted, so poorly constructed are the little schoolhouses. Such discomforts and informality are not conducive to earnest study, nor can the teacher insist on a very high standard of behavior in children for whom so little thought has been taken. So many improved devices are now on the market for controlling the temperature and humidity of schoolrooms, that every district should be provided with the means of keeping the school in comfort. A simple jacket of sheet-iron about a stove in which a fire may be kept over night will serve most one-room school buildings. A better arrangement is a heater in the basement, where fuel also may be kept, with a playroom for rainy days. The school standardization movement is accomplishing much in this direction.

---

[1] See Dexter, "School Deportment and the Weather," *Educational Review*, Feb., 1900, pages 160–168.

Air

Air must be not only of the right temperature, but reasonably pure. The viciously contaminated air in some schoolrooms effectively prevents good work. Earnest application is impossible to the child whose lungs are filled with poison. Incapable of giving voluntary attention to the work in hand, he allows his involuntary attention to be drawn to any chance movement which catches his eye. Suggestion and imitation complete his fall into some offense from which good working conditions might have saved him.

Light

Poor light is likewise responsible for some misdemeanors. Poor light is too strong or too dim, direct sunlight on floor or work, or light from the wrong direction. A favorite and most annoying trick of children is to throw a brilliant reflection of sunlight about the room with a small mirror. This can never occur in a properly shaded room. On the other hand, dimly lit rooms encourage idleness and the unnumbered works of darkness. Artificial light of some kind should be provided in every schoolroom for dark days.

Dirty and ill-kept buildings

Any number of disgusting practices are traceable to dirty and insanitary school premises. A schoolhouse in a considerable village of central Illinois was so ill-kept that the effects of its condition upon school order might easily be seen when school was not in session. The floor under the radiators was thick with accumulated dirt, in which could be seen deposits of peanut shells, pencil-sharpenings, candy-wrappers, and wads of paper. In a high window at the back of one room, a piece had been broken from a pane, evidently some time before, since the surrounding wall was studded with many generations of paper-wads, plainly aimed at the opening but landed wide of the mark. The dingy desks were deeply cut with initials and rude pictures. In the dark, dusty cloakrooms could be deciphered impudent legends concerning the teachers, and insulting statements about pupils. Had the schoolhouse been kept clean, had it been properly inspected, all these forms of bad order would have been, or at least could have been, prevented. A word here about the worst form of vandalism is apropos. There are outbuildings on school premises in our country containing disrespectful or indecent legends, which have been contaminating the minds of children for years because no teacher has had the courage to insist that the place be thoroughly cleaned up. Dirt in any form is demoralizing, and where it is condoned trouble may be expected from it soon or late.

Signs of disorder

The need of walks

In many schools the mud brought in by pupils keeps the floors in poor condition and is a menace to health and a temptation to misbehavior. A shameless parsimony deters the boards of such schools from making the needed walks about the school buildings. In Illinois, a state justly famous for the blackness and stickiness of its mud, it is not at all uncommon to see country schools which have not a foot of sidewalk on the premises. Good concrete walks from the entrance of the school yard to the door, and also to each outhouse, with scrapers at the front gate and others at the door, can be made at a very reasonable cost, will last for years, and will save health, appearances and self-respect. Mats of wire and fiber are also helpful in keeping the school floor in a sanitary condition.[1]

Aids to good attention

A most disturbing if comparatively innocent offense is the craning of necks and straining of ears when sights and sounds from the outside world call the attention of the children. Older children may be set a task in self-control if the teacher enjoys psychological experiment, but little folk need merely a more thorough isolation. Opaque curtaining at windows and doors is first aid to injured attention. Deadened floors and walls shut out noise and induce an answering quiet from the pupils. A schoolhouse near a railroad, or a house in process of building, is a hard place to keep in order.

In closing this division of our discussion, it should be said that it is the business of the school board to see that teachers have a fair chance to keep their schools in order. They should provide clean, quiet, comfortable quarters for the school, that the teachers may have no handicap in the mere material environment. Teachers should insist on such surroundings before beginning school; they have not half a chance without them.

---

[1] For excellent suggestions concerning the physical environment in country schools, see Dressler, *The Hygiene of Rural Schools*, N. E. A., 1912, page 1103.

Results of the Physical Condition of Pupils

The by-products of growth

The growing pains of boys and girls are many and various. Sometimes they afflict the public in queer or annoying ways. A new consciousness of himself, a new ability to think independently, a cocky exuberance over the acquiring of some new dignity, has led many a school child who would not for worlds be deliberately impudent, into the temptation of "talking back" to his teacher. To check such manifestations wisely is no easy task, for if too severely reprimanded such a child may become silent and morose, sullenly aggrieved at an affront to his new dignity.

A number of modes and stages mark the advance of children from babyhood to maturity, each with its characteristic aberrations and its own trying mannerisms or even vices. Boys, for instance, are by turns frankly affectionate, graciously patronizing, blindly indifferent, brutally rude, jealous, hateful, secretly admiring, and openly devoted to the little girls they meet at school. Girls are given to fads which they pursue with the most maddening single-mindedness. They make hairpin braid behind their geographies, they keep house in their desks, setting tea-tables with real food beneath the lid, they cut paper dolls, make rose-beads, write romances and diaries, read Laura Jean Libby, and draw cartoons of the teachers during school hours. All the interests of maturer years appear in little during a school-girl's career. Restlessness and change, resistance and adventure, are especially strong in both boys and girls at the times when physical changes are most rapid and critical. Physiology and psychology have explained, as perfectly normal manifestations, many things that were formerly regarded as the grim outcroppings of original sin.

Obscenity

Chief among the troubles which arise from the normal physical development of boys and girls are those which are grouped under the term obscenity. They spring from a perversion of innocent instincts, and might be prevented in all but degenerate children by proper instruction, given preferably at home. Children have an altogether normal and healthy curiosity concerning the origin of life and the relation of the sexes; and the painful offenses against purity and good taste, of which they are guilty, are often but the result of the mistaken policy of reticence and deception which has been so long the rule.

Other causes and results

In addition to the problems that arise from the natural and healthy development of children, there are others that spring from abnormal or subnormal conditions. These are notably inattention, with the restlessness and mischief that go with it, idleness, and irritability. Cheating is sometimes the pathetic last resort of a child who is prevented from making a good showing to parents or teacher, because of some physical disability. Deafness, poor sight, adenoids, or similar troubles, make children appear dull or indifferent. A cure of the physical trouble will often transform them in a short time into quick, attentive pupils to whom learning is a happiness, and obedience a grateful impulse. School nurses are employed in many cities to help in the rescue of physically defective children, while dental and medical inspection is becoming more and more common even in the remoter country districts.[1]

Malnutrition

Aside from these organic troubles, thousands of children are prevented from doing good work, and so made subject to chance suggestions of mischief, because they are not well fed. Malnutrition keeps children below the point at which the nourished body sends a good supply of blood to the brain, so that physical and mental development go on together. Among the children of the very poor there is an actual lack of food, but among the well-to-do the trouble is usually with over-eating or a poor selection of food. Some country children eat to stupidity, following the example of the men of their families, who eat far more than even their hard manual labor can justify. Children who are fed rich pastry and pickles, and are allowed to drink coffee, ale or wine, can scarcely be expected to do well physically, or to respond to the highest appeals made to them. Fortunately, many cities have taken up the matter of the school luncheon for serious study and experimentation. Substantial lunches at from one to five cents are furnished. The school cafeteria is a recognized feature of the larger institutions. In the smaller schools, some good may be done by a series of very practical and detailed lessons on food and digestion, with experiments if possible to show the effects of badly chosen food upon the body.

---

[1] See Dressler, *The Duty of the State in the Medical Inspection of Schools*. Report of N. E. A., 1912, pp. 257 ff.

IV. OFFENSES DUE TO UNTRAINED MORAL JUDGMENT AND PERVERTED IDEALS

A group of very serious offenses may be traced to popular fallacies concerning moral laws, or to custom blindly followed without reference to moral law. Among young children these offenses spring usually from simple selfishness — a lack of socialization of spirit. They may be stubborn, refusing from pure self-will to follow directions, or to give up a personal privilege, or share some pleasant thing. Disobedience in older children is sometimes due, not to resentment against the teacher so much as to a mistaken ideal of maturity, independence, and aristocratic high spirits. Such children have perhaps heard a grown person tell with complacency of an experience in which he worsted authority. The children imbibe the idea that resistance to law is the mark of a noble and untamable spirit. Inflammable literature, in which outlawry is idealized and villainy made picturesque, is sometimes responsible. A child who has absorbed such ideals wishes to prove his mettle by refusing to be bound by the petty regulations that trammel his fellows. A wise teacher, confronted by one of these theatrical, self-appointed heroes, will strike at the root of the difficulty by ascertaining the source of the pseudo-inspiration, and by substituting truer ideals for the harmful ones.

"Independence."

The children in many towns grow up without having had "a square deal" ethically. The whole community may be so poisoned by false ideals, in so primitive a condition morally, that the children commit

Community influence

really serious offenses without an idea that they are transgressing any moral law. An educator, having reason to visit a town in the Middle West, went to see the high school there. It was the last day of the semester, and examinations were being given. The books of all the students were piled up in long rows around the room. The principal and teachers explained that the books had been taken from the students to prevent cheating, a custom which had been followed for years in that community. The reason for this was that the parents were of the firm opinion that the only harm in cheating lay in the possibility of being caught. It was not an uncommon thing for parents to boast to their neighbors of the successful exploit of a child who had outwitted the teachers on examination day. A tradition had grown up in that town which not only excused, but even fixed upon the children the habit of cheating. In a similar way, other evils have become traditional in various communities, which explains the fruitlessness of the efforts of conscientious teachers to effect a change for the better. Not the children in the school, but the parents in the homes, need education primarily. With the extension of school privileges to grown people, and the growing influence of schoolmen and schoolwomen in our country, and with the awakening of the clergy to the need for specific moral instruction, we may hope that the ideals of the people may be raised from such a standard as is indicated in the illustration just given. One point can not be over-emphasized: that there is a close and vital connection between disorder and misconduct, and the ethical ideals of all the people from whom

The uncivilized parent

pupils learn their code of life. Conduct works out from within, truly and inevitably. It is worse than useless to try to control school behavior and secure good school conduct, leaving all untouched the deep wells from which conduct springs.

Fighting

The primitive standard

Fighting, not in itself an unmixed evil, springs from many causes, most of which may be grouped under the general head of inadequate ideals. They are inadequate and outworn, the tenacious standards of a time long past, rather than perverted ideals. The most primitive and ineradicable of them is the world-old admiration for brute force, and of the man or boy who can establish his position by recourse to it. A new boy in a school is expected to prove his right to a friendly reception by at least one well-fought battle, usually with the boss of the "gang." There are many other ways in which a boy may prove his right to the respect of other boys, but with an almost unfailing reversion to primitive standards, boys everywhere demand a fight. The challenged respond to the condition without great regret, for combativeness is of the spirit of man from the beginning. For this reason a "string" of fights often accompanies the entrance of a new boy into a school.

The fight of resentment

Second among the ideals which foster fighting is a cheap notion of democracy which resents any and every inequality. Boys will often eagerly coöperate in forcing a fight upon another boy whose only offense is some real or fancied superiority. Smart clothes, the attendance of servants, too brilliant recitations in class, an evident preference on the part of the teacher or of the girls in the school, or an unfortunate reference to experiences or possessions out of the reach of his schoolmates, has brought upon many a peace-loving boy the vengeance of the commoner. Most people resent superiority keenly, and children show this resentment frankly where their elders dissemble rather than acknowledge their humiliating position.

The fight for excitement

Fighting is not quite the fundamental thing that its prevalence would lead one to believe. Boys like intense action, and in the absence of intense action of a better sort they turn to the intensiveness of combat. The personal element gives zest; the possibility of serious consequences turns the sport into adventure. The taste for fighting grows, like any other bad habit; and when other ways of securing excitement fail, boys learn to produce a fight by some kind of artificial stimulation, usually persistent taunting. Children can be maddeningly insulting, and with any convenient circumstance as a basis, will drive any self-respecting comrade to blows in a short time. Fights of this sort can be effectively cured only by furnishing a new interest of greater excitement than the fight. In other words, fighting must be crowded out by better amusements.

The fight of gang loyalty

There is also the gang-fight, growing out of that intense loyalty to "our crowd" which seems to be part of a city boy's religion. This is a survival of the old loyalty of the knight for his own particular band of robbers. It is one with that spirit which supports battle-ships and standing armies, Krupp guns and jingoism, in these days when the arts of peace are, theoretically, appraised far above the arts of war. Even among very good and advanced people, the idea of a thorough socialization makes its way very slowly. Popular standards make a virtue out of devotion to the interests of one's own particular unit, even when those interests clash with justice to the people of other units. This narrow, selfish preference for one's own, coupled with the prejudice against outsiders which is its natural corollary, ought to be regarded as a vicious thing, and in a more enlightened age will be classed with the selfishness of the man who would restrict the gifts of life to his own family. As political parties bend their energies toward keeping their political enemies out of office, so boys, organized in gangs, develop a shrewd skill in outwitting other gangs, and make a virtue of every deed of violence committed in the name of the gang. General fights are usually due to the gang organization in some form, and the only real cure lies in breaking up the gang by substituting other interests for the regular gang activities.

Imitative fights

Still another cause of fighting is the prominence given to prize-fights in the newspapers and in popular conversation. When a prize-fighter becomes a national hero, the school bully becomes a local one. Nevertheless, his pugnacity is modified by restrictions, for schoolboys learn to referee and conduct fights in very professional form. This is not altogether bad; indeed, if fighting is as inevitable as some would have us believe, it is altogether good. It introduces a code of fairness, of submission to established rules, that removes these contests from the realm of the purely brutal. If boys will fight, it is good for them to fight under regulations that instil some ideals of fair play. Where characteristics copied from prize-fights are very prominent, these combats will usually be found to spring from imitation of what the boys consider the most manly sport. Teachers in boys' schools have succeeded in controlling fighting almost entirely by substituting boxing contests under supervision; but this method is scarcely practicable in most public schools.

Shielding Evil-Doers

"Tattling"

An offense which many teachers condone or justify is the shielding of schoolmates who have done wrong, through the same sense of party-loyalty which upholds the gang. In the minds of many children, the school and its pupils are two opposing forces, each trying to outwit the other. They feel that loyalty to their party includes the shielding of any member who has transgressed the law, no matter how seriously. The attitude of teachers and parents who dilate upon the crime of "tattling" supports the idea. Now it is true that tale-bearing is an ugly habit, and that it sometimes grows, if not checked, until all sorts of petty personal grievances are carried to an overburdened teacher for adjustment. Small children, if championed in their little differences, do not learn the self-reliance which comes through a normal series of self-defensive contests. But petty tale-bearing and the betrayal of wrong-doing are as different as helpfulness between pupils who are mastering a new task, and helpfulness between the same pupils when the task is supposed to be mastered and a test is being given. Helpfulness in one case is altruism, in the other dishonesty. The

An outworn fallacy

inquiry by the teacher, who has a right to know the facts, makes the difference in both cases. A consistent allegiance to social ideals and an adequate conception of the school as a social unit, demand that all work together for the good of all. Each citizen in this little country should be a law-enforcer. When one or several citizens fail, it is the duty of others, *if called upon*, to help bring them to justice and reformation. The child who protects another child who is in the wrong is an accessory to that wrong, and an enemy to the best interests of the school.

Tact It goes without saying that teachers should be tactful in acting upon this principle. The older ideal, of loyalty to individuals which transcends the obligation to the body social, is still so generally held, even by thoughtful people, that one finds the newer loyalty "more honored in the breach than in th' observance." It is almost always possible to find out what is to be known without direct questioning, one of the notable axioms of teachers being that children will "tell on themselves" if given a fair chance. If an inquisition becomes advisable, however, no teacher should hesitate because of conscientious scruples concerning the child's right to shield a friend.[1]

Lying

Dr. Hall[2] differentiates seven kinds of lying to which children are prone. Some are innocent expressions of the spirit of play, or over-conscientious scrupling;

---

[1] Tompkins, *Philosophy of Teaching*, pp. 331–333.

[2] G. Stanley Hall, "Children's Lies," *The Pedagogical Seminary*, vol. i, pp. 211–218.

others are cowardly or vicious subterfuges leading to serious defects in character. The classification is as follows:

The conscientious lie

1. Pseudophobic lies, or statements which children morbidly fear and imagine are lies. This fear leads to systematized palliatives, over-fine word-splitting, and reluctance to give definite answers to questions. Such children fear they may unwittingly lie, and suffer terrible consequences, either immediately or in a future life.

The romantic lie

2. Heroic lies, justified and even acclaimed as a laudable sacrifice of mere personal honor to another's gain. Such lying, especially when used to protect schoolmates, often grows out of ideals formed by hearing stories of justified lies. Devotion to friends has a more concrete and emotional appeal to the childish heart and mind than devotion to truth, "truth" being an abstraction often beyond their comprehension.

The partisan lie

3. Lies which express dislike. "Truth for friends and lies for enemies" is a defensible doctrine for children until a more impersonal ideal has been taught them. And grown people often support them in the childish idea that, while honorable treatment is due to friends, "all's fair in war."

The self-saving lie

4. Selfish lies. These are the lies of denial for the sake of protection, and those told to gain a point. They are the most common and the most dangerous of the lies met with in schools. They are fostered by too much emphasis on honors and marks, by excessive emulation, by undue severity in punishment, by carelessness in accepting excuses without investigation. But no care of conditions will ever entirely eliminate the opportunities for telling them, nor will little chil-

dren cease to try to protect themselves by this instinctive means. It is a fault that must be fought "by appeals to honor, self-respect, self-control. Hard and even hated tasks, and rugged moral, mental, and physical regimen should supplement those modern methods which make education a sort of self-indulgence of natural interests."

The "lie" of fancy

5. Lies born of the imagination and play-instinct. These spring from the pleasure of self-deception and of imposing on others the shadowy fancies of an idealizing temperament. In themselves they are innocent, and should not be stopped; but children need help in distinguishing between fact and fancy, which are often strangely confused in their active but not analytical minds. The child who declares that he saw a horse with five feet walking across the lake, drawing a carriage full of mice as big as collies, needs some painstaking explanation of his own mental processes; but for the sake of our future literature he should not be punished for lying. He may yet redeem us from the too-true charge of literal-mindedness.

The sensational lie

6. Pseudomania, or the love of lying for the sake of the impression produced, is a serious moral disease. It usually shows itself in boys in a desire to humbug or trick others, and in girls in a morbid kind of affectation, which seeks constant attention. Such girls make up marvelous stories of the wealth, fame, and ancestry of their families, for the sake of the distinction it gives them in the eyes of their schoolmates. Boys lie for the pure fun of trying the credulity of others, of finding out how much they can make them believe. After a time this love of lying for its effect becomes a habit of

lying, without regard to effect. The victim can not tell the truth, even when it is to his advantage to do so. "These cases demand the most prompt and drastic treatment. If the withdrawal of attention and sympathy and belief in the earlier manifestations, and if instruction and stern reprimand are not enough," says Dr. Hall, "there is still virtue in the rod, which should not be spared, and, if this should fail, then the doctor should be called."

The cowardly lie

7. Palliative lies, which are at least partially excused by mental reservations or muttered reversing formulæ; the pantomimic lie, and the lie of silent assent. "I didn't do it, it was my hand," is a common inward excuse for a lying denial.

All of these varieties of lies except the first and fifth should be treated as serious moral offenses, which give rise to vices in maturer years if not checked in youth. A fine and high and uncompromising ideal of truth can be built up by attacking the evil forcibly whenever it shows itself. But the teacher needs to be very sure of understanding the motive and nature of the lie before attempting to correct it, lest injustice, or the application of ineffective blundering remedies result.

Stealing

Stealing is another sin whose prevention and cure lie in vigorous instruction, in the inculcation and drilling of strong prejudices. Among schoolchildren it seems to be due to a variety of motives, all of which would yield to a standard of absolute honesty if that standard were taught early enough and sufficiently emphasized. Children steal because of

1. The instinct of acquisitiveness, which, unchecked, leads a child to take what attracts his attention or what he can use.

2. The desire to have something to give away. Children who can not get such gifts at home frequently steal apples, flowers, or candy to give to the teacher or to an adored classmate.

Stealing for fun

3. A desire to show superior cleverness. A boy in a California school, for instance, boasted that he could steal an orange a day from a carefully guarded tree, for two weeks. He had formed a friendship for the bulldog which lived at that home, and accomplished the feat, to the great admiration of his schoolmates, by feeding him a piece of meat while the family were at luncheon. He had almost made good his boast when another boy betrayed him unintentionally in a school theme, which set an investigation on foot. The would-be thief belonged to a well-to-do family, and had no incentive for such acts but the craving for admiration and notoriety. Systematic stealing from lockers and lunch-boxes, which in some schools defies detection for a long time, is probably partly because of the fun connected with puzzling and baffling the authorities for so long a time.

4. The demands of others. Occasionally a case of deliberate instruction of a child in stealing, by parents or others, is unearthed.

5. Convenience. Pencils, erasers, rulers, papers, or textbooks are taken from desks by pupils who need these articles, and have no scruples about supplying themselves from whatever stores may be at hand.

Direct, rationalized, and at the same time emotionalized teaching, combined with punishment of actual offenses, will cure stealing in most cases, provided the pupil is young enough. The evil is one of the long list to be attributed to neglected home training.

Cheating Cheating is also to be attributed to an untrained moral judgment. The cause is simply a neglect of the teaching of prejudices against unfair means of gaining one's ends — in the absence of which, of course, any means seems good. The moral judgment which should make a child recoil with repugnance from dishonesty is not a judgment at all, strictly speaking, but an habitual reaction, as mechanical as writing or eating. Its rationalization may come early or late; the child is safe if only the prejudice be well fixed. The boy or girl who cheats has a poor sense of relative values; he has been taught to overestimate a grade, or to underestimate the imperative necessity of honesty.

Gambling Various devices by which something may be had for nothing develop in children a taste for gaming, and should be prohibited as subversive of morals. Playing marbles for keeps is essential gambling, as is penny-matching and pencil-tossing. The grab-baskets and other petty lotteries which often flourish in the vicinity of schools show how quickly children respond to the lure of gaming. The wonder of so great a gain as is possible with so little invested seems to appeal irresistibly to childish imaginations. The sense of fair compensation, which is one of the most intricate and difficult to develop of all our acquired feelings, is almost entirely wanting in children. It is foolish to expect that little folk will refrain from gaming through any deliberate judgment based on motives of honesty, although strong prejudices may be early developed, and make the strongest defense against the subtle temptation to take a chance. The only safeguard against gambling devices is their absolute prohibition. Fortunately, the laws in most states are sufficiently severe to be an effective ally of teachers and school boards, if enforced; and public opinion, more sensitive in this matter than in many others, will usually support a crusade against schemes calculated to develop a love for gaming among children.

V. OFFENSES OF SENSATIONALISM

"Showing off"

"All the world's a stage" to children who enjoy being in the limelight. No trammeling sense of propriety limits the field of their histrionics. Unless carefully trained in the prejudices that make people well-bred, children carry their theatricals to church, to concerts, and to lectures, and parade them when shopping, walking, and riding. They keep the choicest bits of "business," however, for school, where they have an appreciative audience of themselves. The mischief caused by childish vanity is not so great in volume, perhaps, as that due to the causes already mentioned; but the offenses are more sensational in character, and their power to break up school order and belittle authority is immense. They spring from a primeval sort of vanity, which seeks to attract attention to its possessor by any means at almost any cost. Under a strong school government this vanity is held in check by the fear of consequences, and by the force of public opinion, which pays its meed of reverence to efficiency. But where the authority of the teacher is not yet established or has broken down, the theatrical instincts of youth assert themselves strongly, and the result is usually a series of those ingenious impertinences which become the stock-in-trade of half-amused and wholly-shocked scandal-mongers.

Bad odors

Among the more serious offenses due to a desire to attract attention and comment, is that of introducing an intolerable odor into the schoolroom. Cut onions are mild offenders; assafoetida, sulphur compounds, and Limburger cheese, especially when concealed in the coils of radiators, may easily break up a school session. Snuff or red pepper is sometimes scattered on schoolroom floors, producing uncontrollable sneezing.

Animals in the schoolroom

Most colleges cherish a legend of some class which proved its right to fame by hoisting a cow to the belfry, or installing a flock of sheep in a favored classroom. Boys and girls, hearing these tales of great deeds, follow them in a modest way, hoping to win at least passing mention. They put a mouse or a snake into the teacher's desk, or conceal in their coats kittens or puppies, later to be turned adrift upon a not indifferent world. Children have been known to carry bees, mice, bats, and angleworms into the room in boxes, which were afterward opened, liberating very effective disturbers of the peace.

Various misdeeds

Other misdeeds which bring the perpetrator to the admiring notice of his fellows are the marking of the backs of coats with chalked legends, or pinning paper labels there. Boys of the *Treasure Island* age proudly exhibit arms tatooed with ink-pricks[1] or transfer pictures. Shaking the building by quick pressures of the feet is a traditional way of creating a sensation by puzzling the teacher, whose efforts to discover the offender make a huge joke. Another method of annoying a teacher and disturbing a schoolroom lies in sprinkling the floor with match-heads, which may be dropped from a slit in a coat-pocket in such a way as to escape the sharpest surveillance. The subsequent popping and snapping can not be blamed upon the students who step upon the match-heads, who may not be the same ones who dropped them. Altogether the offense is one in which offenders are hard to find and punish.

---

[1] These have been known to produce very serious blood-poisoning.

Misdirected cleverness

A favorite trick in one school was the throwing of handfuls of fine shot to the ceiling when the teacher's back was turned. By the time the shot had struck the ceiling and pattered down briskly all over the room, the culprit was innocently at work, or looking as surprised as his neighbors. In the same school, one ingenious boy dared to appropriate the hat, muffler, overcoat, and arctics of a visitor, and use them to dress up a bass viol that stood in the principal's office. At the close of a study period, when the rows of students in the assembly room passed back to the classroom doors, the ends of the aisles were found to be blocked by a rope, which passed from desk to desk at a height of about two feet, across the rear of the room. All these pranks were invented for the sake of the admiring comments of loafers on the street or parents at home, as well as for the more immediate audience of schoolmates. Many grown people utterly fail, by the half-hearted deprecation they affect, to conceal their admiration for such undignified conduct, such a travesty on public education. The instances recorded occurred at a time of change of administration, when a shift in control aroused resentment and put the school system much in the public eye. In ordinary times of sustained authority they could not have happened.

Misleading appearances

An especially blameworthy offense is the deliberate effort to make the authority of a teacher seem ridiculous, and his efforts to keep order puerile, by assuming an appearance of indifference or disorder, while carefully refraining from the letter of disobedience. Some children delight in gazing absently through a window, or staring at the ceiling; and, when their teacher thinks to catch them napping by calling on them suddenly, rattle off answers with a disconcerting promptness and accuracy. The joke is on the teacher, who does very ill to leave it there. A teacher should demand not only attention, but every appearance of attention; and the appearance of bad order is in itself an offense, to be dealt with severely. A teacher who had been much annoyed by a species of small catapult, with which boys shot paper wads about the room, seemed finally to have captured or banished all the machines, and to have restored perfect order. While still sensitive to any sign of their use, however, she thought, on suddenly turning, that she saw one boy lower his arms hastily and slip something into his desk. She said nothing, but soon afterward turned quickly again, when the performance was repeated. She went to the boy's desk and raised the lid. There was no slingshot there. A questioning and search failed to reveal any, whereupon the grinning boy confessed that he had made the motions purposely "to fool the teacher." The teacher, however, being no fool, stood the boy up in the corner for the afternoon, explaining that his offense added lying to inattention, and was therefore worse than the use of a real slingshot.

VI. Offenses of Imitation

Environment and manners

Community and home are mirrored pretty accurately in the problems of public school teachers. Any number of the alarming or annoying misdeeds of pupils are sheer and simple imitations of what the grown people whom the children know, do or say they do. These offenses vary from gum-chewing, a comparatively innocuous but incomparably annoying American custom, to very serious misdemeanors that often end in the courts. Their importance can scarcely be overestimated. The majority of the acts of all human beings are imitative until they become habitual, while habits themselves are but the results of successive imitations. If this be true of mature, thinking people, it is infinitely more true of children, with whom suggestion is more potent owing to the absence of established habitual response. The list of school offenses growing out of imitation is a long one, and strongly suggests the unity of school life with the whole life of the world, and the interest of teachers and parents in every phase of social reform. The following enumeration includes only the more important and general misdemeanors.

Impudence and defiance

Children who hear impertinent language will be impertinent. They have a positive genius for remembering, reproducing, extending, and adorning the sharp and disrespectful things they hear. Parents who quarrel, or taunt each other, may not receive similar treatment from their children, but some other child, or a teacher, or a helpless cripple on the street, will reap the harvest of sharp words. When children are impudent, the teacher may look for the cause in a quarrelsome home life, in the influence of a virago in the child's neighborhood, in the instigation of a mischief-maker who suggests the "smart" attitude to a self-conscious aspirant after notoriety, or in the example of a strong, vigorous leader among the children. The man who boasts of his "independence" toward his employer, or who tells his admiring children how he defied the park policeman who ordered him off the grass, is planting the seeds of disrespect in those fertile little minds. Teachers may profitably enlarge upon this subject at meetings of Parents' and Mothers' Clubs.

Lawlessness

A step further than impertinence lies lawlessness, which is the expression of the same spirit in deeds. Children can not be expected to submit to regulations, when the grown people from whom they learn their code of life, so lightly defy the law of the land. Children know that their parents exceed the speed limit when motoring, smuggle goods into the country, kill game out of season, send letters rolled in newspapers to avoid paying first-class postage, and tell lies about ages when paying fares. The spirit that prompts their elders to evade the law that should be supported, and sets up personal advantage or a conviction that the law is a mistaken one, as a legitimate reason for disobeying it, is easily and freely imbibed by children, and results in untold trouble in the schools. Lawlessness is said to be growing in this country. The schools must stand as a unit to combat the tendency, and to teach in a positive way the necessity and righteousness of law. Teachers themselves are sometimes guilty of the spirit of disrespect for law. In a certain school, for instance, the seventh grade teacher actively opposed the order of the principal that all classes should march in and out in lines, and to music. She was one of the spontaneity fiends who object to artificial order because it is not a natural, instinctive, childlike thing. She told her pupils that she did not agree with the principal, and when he was not there to see, she allowed them to hop and skip after their own spontaneous promptings. She was popular with the children, and made the common mistake of overestimating the strength of her personal appeal to them. Once, when she had gone away on an errand, leaving her classes quietly studying, she returned to find a half-dozen boys and girls standing on their desks. An ingenious leader had dared them, and they had responded.

Unreliable teachers

"But I ought to be able to trust you," said the seventh grade teacher. "Can't you be trusted when I'm away, just as much as when I'm here?"

There was a moment's pause, while the children sat in shamed silence. Then the schoolroom Nemesis spoke loudly and accusingly:

"Mr. Lane can't trust you to make us march out when he's not here."

Ridicule

Allied to the lack of respect which shows itself in defiant words and deeds, is the lack of respect which shows itself in ridicule. Americans may well be proud of the keen, broad-gauge humor and the incisive wit which characterize daily intercourse in this country. There is a quality of superfluousness in it, of overflowing spirits, of fun that overleaps all temperate bounds, an exuberance of laughter for its own sake. American humor is as wasteful of itself as American farming. It lacks delicacy, finish, and reserve; it glories in an audacity which is refreshing or shocking, according to one's point of view. It is the audacity of American humor, passing too often into irreverence, which distinguishes it from the humor of older countries, which seems therefore tame and pointless to Americans. It is the irreverent fun of Americans which becomes a social menace. It is the habit of seeing fun in things which should command only respect, love, gratitude, or horror and fear. The deference due to age, to position, to honorable service, to the self-respect of the poor, alike yield to the universal love of a joke. A mistaken sense of the ludicrous turns even the misfortunes of deformity or imbecility into a source of laughter. This is all wrong. However, it is a condition so generally prevalent that children early fall into a habit of easy ridicule unless they are guarded against it. "Do you know, I can always see a funny side to everything," is a common boast, given with great complacency. The ridicule of children falls upon the weak and helpless, upon those who differ from them in clothes and customs, and upon teacher, pupils, the school regimen in general. They copy the habit from their elders, from moving-pictures and vaudeville shows, and especially from that arch-enemy of all that is desirable, the "funny sheet" of the Sunday newspaper. The widespread example

Irreverence

of the Katzenjammers and their ilk has corrupted more good manners than the whole teaching fraternity can correct in a decade.

Profanity and obscenity

Obscenity is due partly to natural curiosity imperfectly and mistakenly satisfied, and partly to imitation. Probably imitation has more to do with it than natural curiosity. Inscriptions on walls, and literature secretly circulated, calling attention to phases of living of which children would otherwise know little or nothing, and the conversation of older students, stimulate like thinking and talking among children who are often so young that they do not realize the nature and import of the subjects they discuss. Sharp supervision of premises and friendly association with pupils, together with a high standard made reasonable by wise explanation, are preventives and cures of obscenity. It is very doubtful if the evil can be entirely eliminated from our schools until a higher moral standard becomes prevalent throughout society.

Profanity is an offense for which no possible excuse can be found. It has psychological effects of a most serious nature, aside from all the religious considerations which make it revolting to a majority of people. Among children it may be said to be altogether an imitative vice. Its use demands the most summary treatment, as an offense against both good taste and morals, with efforts to build up strong prejudices in favor of simple and reverent language.

Hazing

Hazing is an offense found for the most part in college towns, where the children in the common schools copy it from the higher institutions. Occasionally it crops out even in remote villages, however, instigated by an ingenious leader with a big brother in college, or a book of college stories in the home library. *Tom Brown's Schooldays* has introduced the custom into a few schools, although as a rule the fagging system there portrayed was carried on in ways so foreign to American school customs as not to carry over as a practical stimulus. The example of present-day college hazing is far more suggestive. The fact that most high school boys live at home is fortunate, as it protects them largely from such treatment.

Walkouts and strikes

The newspapers occasionally chronicle concerted revolts of school children, in which the methods used are copied from those of labor organizations. They follow the imposition of some task or course to which the pupils object, a change in teachers, or an attempted reform for which the way has not been prepared by building up public opinion among the pupils. They are the signs of shrewd thinking and an aroused self-consciousness peculiar to our own time, and have been considered, according to the equity conceded their claims, a fine manifestation of the spirit of justice, or a horrible example of that perverted democracy which borders on anarchy.

Aping college fraternities

The offenses connected with high school fraternities include almost every asinine absurdity imaginable. The spectacular and self-indulgent phases of college fraternity life appeal very strongly to high school boys in whom the love of good times is strong. Similarly, the fun and romance of sorority life often mean more to impressionable young girls than all the breadth of training which a college education gives a woman.

It is natural that these things should appeal to the spirit of youth, but it is dangerous to allow that appeal to outweigh the real needs of healthy boys and girls.

Tobacco, alcohol, drugs

Our laws and their enforcement are usually so lax that school authorities must be very alert to protect their charges against the enterprise of those who commercialize the vice of catering to depraved appetites. That is to say, popular indifference and ignorance have forced upon the school the fight for unspoiled minds and free wills, for good materials upon which to work. Teachers must prepare the field before seed may be sown, and guard it constantly from the spoiler. In this matter the natural instinct of imitation, which leads boys to smoke or drink because their fathers and elder brothers do so, is stimulated by pretty systematic suggestion or even urgent inducements. The manufacturers of cigarettes play skilfully upon the boyish love of doing things that are manly; and they supplement the appeal to the instinct of imitation by an appeal to the instinct of acquisitiveness, when they offer pictures, pennants, and other premiums with the tobacco. The logical cure for an evil based on imitation is to do away with the example, which means an abstinence on the part of teachers and parents at which the most conscientious often stop short. There will probably be some smoking on the part of boys so long as men continue to smoke, but the evil can be reduced to a minimum if a courageous stand be taken upon the question.

Drinking among school children, and the use of drugs, are similarly the effect of environment, suggestion, and direct appeal by those interested. There are in most localities strict ordinances concerning the selling of liquor to minors, "rushing the growler," and the sale of narcotics. Where these evils exist in spite of the ordinances the school authorities and the police department have in many places coöperated to enforce the law. In other places, where the police department refused to do anything to remedy the wrong, it was necessary to interest numbers of citizens in the condition of things and bring the force of public opinion to bear upon the situation. The sale of some narcotics, particularly that form of opium called

Heroin

heroin, and different forms of cocaine, is so profitable that druggists risk severe penalties for the gain of the traffic. Heroin — "scat" or "joy powder" in the vocabulary of its devotees — forms a fixed habit very quickly, and one that is practically incurable. In some schools the habit of inhaling chloroform becomes a fad before the teachers are aware that it has been introduced. In one small town of the Middle West a boy had formed an incurable habit, which so interfered with his work that he was finally compelled to leave school, before his teachers had any inkling of the cause of his sleepiness and dullness. Children who lay their heads upon the desk, with handkerchiefs over their faces or with hands covering the nostrils, should

Cocaine

be watched carefully. In large cities it is not uncommon to find children, especially colored children, addicted to cocaine, which can be used in ways that defy detection except to experienced observers. The use of headache powders of various sorts, especially those based upon phenacetin and acetanilide, widely advertised under pseudo-medical trade-names, should be guarded against carefully. Many high school girls form the habit of dependence upon such compounds without understanding the danger of their use.

Drugs at soda fountains

No less harmful are certain compounds widely sold at soda-fountains, and much used by high school and college students as stimulants. It is the duty of high school principals to see to it that not only the members of classes in physiology, but all students, understand clearly the great risk that attends the use of any drug or drug compound, and that they know the names of the compounds commonly sold that contain drugs. The most common and therefore the most dangerous of these are certain very popular stimulating compounds which are widely advertised in reputable papers and magazines, and sold everywhere at fountains, as well as in bottles for home consumption. Well-informed physicians know the danger that inheres in their use, and where students are found to be addicted to them they should be sent to a doctor for warning and advice. A talk to the entire school about these habit-forming stimulants may be a good thing if the physician or principal can make it sufficiently earnest and impressive to be a warning and not a challenge.

VII. OFFENSES DUE TO CRUDE AND UNTRAINED MANNERS

Children are sometimes guilty of very annoying breaches of propriety or ethics through ignorance, having no intention whatever of doing wrong. Inexperienced or thoughtless teachers often fail to take into consideration the limited home training of their pupils, and blame and punish them for offenses which are committed in all innocence. Almost the whole category of school offenses comes occasionally into this class; but ignorance of the law, of course, serves as an excuse only when there has been neither home training nor other training to take its place. A child who hears profanity constantly at home is not on that account excusable for using it at school, after having its offensiveness explained to him.

Vandalism

An offense largely due to careless home habits is the vandalism so common among Americans. It comes of a lack of respect for property rights and a poor appreciation of property itself. In their own homes many children are allowed to cut and scratch as they wish; and they naturally do the same at school. Even where parents insist on care for their own property, they fail to teach the obligation of each member of the state to care for the common possessions. There is no feeling of sharing the responsibility, as they share the enjoyment, of goods held by the body social. This ideal the school must strive definitely to instill, and as it becomes more general, the carving of names on desks, the marking up of walls, sidewalks and windowpanes, and the careless waste of public commodities, now so common everywhere, will become mercifully less.

Impudence and rudeness

Much impertinence is also attributable to simple lack of training. It may accurately represent the pupil's attitude or not, but in any case the parents, and not the boys and girls, are to blame. When one considers the phraseology used by thousands of parents to their children, the wonder is that these children ever find words of respect with which to address outsiders of their family circle. Such expressions as "say," "hello," "nope," and "yep" bear no implication of disrespect in the minds of the children who use them most. A boy in an eastern school, devotedly attached to his manual training teacher, had to be broken almost forcibly of the habit of addressing his teacher as "Old Sport," which in his home and social circle was a term of affectionate admiration. Many young girls, teaching their first terms in country districts, are annoyed by personal familiarities, allusions to personal affairs, teasing, and disrespectful language, which need correction, but do not deserve punishment. The notable failure of most country school teachers lies in the fact that they accept these conditions, while deploring them; they make no well-planned effort to change things. They object, for instance, to being addressed by their pupils as "Teacher" rather than by their names; but they do not teach their pupils the custom of courteous people everywhere, which makes frequent use of the individual name.

Horseplay

Other annoying outcomes of neglected home training are the scuffling, teasing, and other forms of horseplay which are so irritating to grown people in general, and to women of gentle breeding especially. They are but the expression of a normal love of action, social intercourse, and rivalry, by boys and girls whose modes of expression are primitive and limited. Education changes the form of expression, while punishment but inhibits action, reducing the healthy spirits of childhood to sullen sluggishness. A tennis court and a gymnasium, regular calisthenics and organized athletics, will take care of the physical exuberance that shows itself in these unpleasant ways, if at the same time there be given some frank talks upon the propriety of such actions. Gentle manners and consideration are not difficult to develop when the ideal is made attractive and the laws of habit-formation may be followed persistently.

SUMMARY

School offenses are caused by

1. Physical and mental energy not wholly used or properly directed.
2. A resentful resistance to a control which pupils do not understand or accept.
3. Peculiarities in the physical condition of pupils, or a faulty physical environment.
4. The lack of training in morals and manners, and the false and fallacious ideals which pass current in society.
5. A desire to attract attention and create a sensation.
6. Imitation of others.
7. The lack of culture.

CHAPTER X

PUNISHMENT

Justification

WE need to return to at least one idea preached to our Puritan forefathers, an idea which largely shaped the lives of generations of forceful folk. This is the principle that no deviation from the moral law is without its penalty. Every sin has its punishment. Every sin has its punishment in the deterioration, or, to put it positively, the lack of development, in the character of the sinner. This is inevitable and automatic, a law of life that requires no *deus ex machina* for its enforcement. If they were solitary creatures, men might rest content with the justice of this law, allowing each person to work out his own salvation or condemnation. But society is an intricate web of mutual influences and common responsibilities, and transgressors bring suffering upon many others, seen and unseen, besides themselves. To reduce the suffering caused by wanton injustice and thoughtlessness, society has taken it upon itself to penalize infringement of the rights of others. Taking a cue from nature, which never allows an infraction of law to go unpunished, men have assumed the right to attempt to control selfish and thoughtless folk for the general good of all folk. Obviously, all offenses against society can not be punished; to punish the most flagrant keeps busy the machinery of the law.

Historical aspect

There are two other historic functions of punishment besides that of protection;[1] these are the functions of expulsion, which is but a further measure of protection, and expiation, which is an instinctive and universal concession to religious and ethical feelings. Formerly, society always referred its right to punish to divine sanction, although acting instinctively in self-defense. With modern self-realization, has come a tendency to claim frankly the inherent right to protect itself and advance its interests; and in this new, common ground society finds a new strength, one that the old appeal to an unseen authority could not have.

The right to punish

The right to punish is therefore the right of society to protect itself from the predatory individual. It is the right to offer the inducement of freedom for respect of others' rights. It is the right to impress and illustrate the immutable law of compensation, which associates good with happiness, and evil with suffering. It resides in the state, because the state is the embodiment of the social will, an intelligence with keenly self-preservative instincts. It resides in parents, who wish to see their children grow in goodness and become a blessing in the earth. It resides in teachers as the agents of the state and the trustees of certain special functions in the training of children, given over by their parents.

The first thing for the teacher to remember is that punishment is a righteous means of securing righteous ends;[2]

---

[1] Saleilles, *Individualization of Punishment*, pp. 20–51.

[2] White, *School Management*, 193–7, gives as the ends of punishment the clarification and emphasis of the association of wrongdoing with pain; the warning of others; and the reformation of the offender. The same authority gives (p. 198) certainty, justice, and naturalness as the three characteristics of effective punishment.

that it is a most important element in the scheme of school management, since its omission when deserved, and its unjust infliction, are both serious betrayals of the sacred trust imposed in the teacher. And a second fact to be remembered is that proper preventive measures will largely do away with the offenses which require punishment.

The Motives for Punishment

Retaliation

Considered historically, there have been four motives for school punishments, following the motives which have actuated men in their meting of punishment in other spheres. The earliest was simple retaliation, following the primitive notion of repaying an eye for an eye. The relationship between teacher and students was almost that of master and servants, and any infringement of rules was a personal affront to the dignity and authority of the master. It was punished in the same spirit in which parents upheld their authority by beating disobedient children — not so much for the good of the child as for the good of the parent's offended vanity. In spite of the littleness of the motive the method was an effective one for the time when thought moved slowly and when conscious social obligation had not developed in the minds of men. It restrained through fear, it emphasized selfish ends, and minimized social obligation; but its value to men was very great, for it did put a premium on consideration for others and on self-control.

Expiation

With the substitution of courts of justice for personal vengeance in restraining the lawless, there grew up a feeling that every offense had its expiation, and punishment became the price of a misdeed. This was a long step in advance of the old idea of punishment as personal vengeance, since it made justice a universal, inevitable principle, theoretically operating whether or not there were one to enforce it. Society at large recognized its duty of championing all who were oppressed by superior force, and also its duty to protect itself by attaching a penalty to evil-doing. Similarly, the good pedagogues of a half-century gone published lists of what were to be considered offenses, and attached to each its expiatory penalty. It was their idea of dealing an impartial, and, so far as might be, an infallible justice.

Sureness of punishment

Now, in relinquishing the once cherished privilege of meting out an expiatory penalty for his brother's misdeeds, men have not denied the principle of expiation. They have but yielded to the working of laws that operate infallibly and universally, a function to which neither the wisdom nor the power of men is equal. They know that he who breaks the laws of Nature and of Justice will surely suffer, even though his breach affect no other human being. This sureness of the penalty of doing wrong is very hard for children and young people to realize and to believe. There is a delay in the working out of consequences that leads youth to a fallacious assurance that although others may suffer, there is for it a way of escape from the punishment of evil. It is in the interest of sound views and wholesomely rationalized prejudices, then, that men emphasize the inevitability of punishment, the impossibility of escape from expiating wrongdoing.

The protection of society

In times characterized by much airy disregard for the fundamental laws of compensation, and by much disbelief in any positive standards of right and wrong, and by the confused ideas of moral obligation that are their sure consequence, it is needful that we keep in sight this old and unpopular truth. Punishment is to be administered as a means of social protection; even the motive of reforming the offender resolves itself in a last analysis, for the social authorities, into that of protecting and elevating the race. But society evades its duty if it does not also emphasize the individual's duty to himself, and his relation to those universal laws of cause and consequence to which he is subject. He is not only to be restrained from doing wrong, but he is to be led to restrain himself from doing wrong; and in this ultimate duty of authority, a conviction of the inevitability of expiation, and its righteousness, is no small element.

Prevention

Existing with both the motives noted, but recognized rather later, was the motive of prevention. This was the social-protection phase of punishment. A murderer is put to death that other would-be murderers may be restrained, and human beings rest in comparative security. As a preventive measure, race experience has given few expedients more effective than prompt, sure punishment. It is recognized that the delay and laxness of our courts in the United States are largely responsible for the shameful prevalence of crime among us. And no teacher need be told that an offense in school that goes unpunished is liable to breed other and worse offenses. The fallacious and mistaken pity for evil-doers, in school and out, which sacrifices the interests or safety of many that one may be spared deserved pain, is one of the saddest examples we have of the working of maudlin sentimentality. The preventive phase of punishment is one of its chief aims and justifications.

Reformation

What punishment aims to do for society it also aims to do for the offender. It proposes to protect him, by saving him from the worst and final consequences of his evil acts by visiting upon him without fail a restrictive measure of pain. It follows the ancient and universal laws of nature, which through the association of pain with the breaking of natural laws, lead men through self-interest to be law-abiding. This is the last and the highest motive for which punishment is given. It brings about reformation through: (1) the restraining influence of three agents, viz.: the actual pain inflicted of whatever kind — physical suffering, humiliation, deprivation of privileges or freedom usually enjoyed; through (2) the enforced contemplation of the nature of the deed and its consequences, which its serious treatment involves; and through (3) the by-products of punishment, the social obloquy and other losses which follow, or should follow, wrong-doing.

The true motives for punishment

Of the four motives, it is almost needless to add, the first has long since been abandoned as unworthy of enlightened human beings. The second, while it is recognized as an important element in punishment in its subjective aspect, is no longer offered as a justification for the infliction of penalties. Men have ceased to consider themselves called upon to punish other men for the sake of balancing the moral scales. They are not so cocksure of their judgment in ethical matters as they formerly were. But to advance the safety and progress of humanity, and to effect the reformation of those whose conduct interferes with that safety and progress, sane men everywhere feel called upon to support the agencies that punish wrong. In the school, similarly, the two great motives of punishment now recognized are the protection of the interests and ends of the school, and the reformation of delinquents.

INDIVIDUALIZATION OF PUNISHMENT

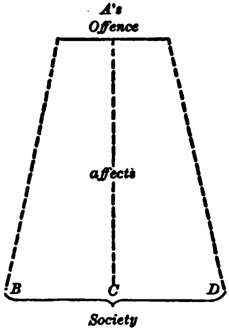
Criminologists are working upon the problem of dispensing a truer justice than can be given by a literal enforcement of the criminal law. Circumstances and motives and the capacity for reformation vary so widely, that a strict application of even the wisest possible law may result in the defeat of the purposes for which that law was made. Saleilles says that there are three types of individualization, prescribed respectively by statute, by the judge, and by the prison authorities. In the school the teacher is law and judge and warden, and has a knowledge of circumstances and character that few of the authorities who try to reform grown offenders can hope to have. Here the material is more pliable, habit being still in the making, and love and hope and faith have a justifiable place in every decision. Unless he has been so foolish as to make threats, unless the Board of Education has limited his authority, a teacher is untrammeled and can vary the treatment of each particular case to suit the real needs of the child.

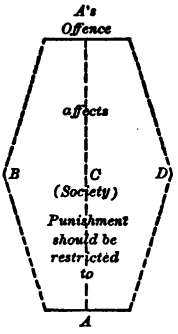
The teacher's advantage

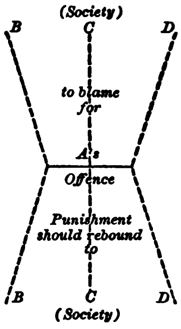
This individualization of treatment is absolutely essential to justice and helpfulness. No good teacher "treats them all alike." No group of school children should ever feel that they know the cost of any particular misdeed. Uncertainty concerning the nature of punishment is part of its value as a deterrent. What is a deliberate sin in one child is but a thoughtless imitation or an innocent impulse in another, and corrective means should differ accordingly. All offenses exist primarily in the will of the offender, and the act may or may not be a reliable index to the mental condition and wishes of the pupil. It would, for instance, be cruelly and foolishly unjust to mete out the same punishment to a half-grown boy who has played truant, and to his six-year-old brother who "tagged along."

Social and individual penalties

There is another sense in which the term "individualization of punishment" may be used. The protective phase of punishment springs largely from the fact that the consequences of sin are social. If *A* commits an offense, its consequences affect *B*, *C*, and *D*. These three persons suffer through no fault of their own, but because of the interrelationship of social forces. If the fault of the sin lies with *A* alone — that is, if it be


A's
Offence
affects
B
C
D
Society


A's
Offence
affects
B
C
D
(Society)
Punishment
should be
restricted
to
A


(Society)
B
C
D
to blame
for
A's
Offence
Punishment
should rebound
to
B
C
D
(Society)

a fault of selfishness, not of ignorance and weakness for which others are to blame — justice demands that as much as possible of the consequence of the act be transferred from *B*, *C*, and *D*, the innocent sufferers, to *A*, who is to blame. Individualization, then, in this sense, is the replacing of the punishment on *A*. But, if the offense is one for which society is to blame, then society is bound to suffer its share of the penalty, which it does by the working of an inevitable moral law.

An example

For instance: In an eastern city two boys were brought to a principal in a single week for carrying beer from a saloon to their fathers during the noon hour. There were ordinances against this, which the school authorities had found it necessary to use as a support for their own efforts to stop the evil. One offender was an American boy who knew perfectly the strict law against minors who entered saloons; the other a little Hungarian lad whose father was as ignorant as he of the fact that he was breaking a law. In one case society had done its duty and the boy was made to suffer the extreme penalty. In the other, there was no formal punishment, for ignorance, which in law is no excuse for an infraction, is really the best of vindications where circumstances justify the allowance of the excuse. In one case, the punishment was made as individual in its application as the misdeed had been, while in the other the absence of the will to transgress, coupled with the fact that the boy's environment had not given him the knowledge that made such an act a misdeed to him, would have made a punishment an injustice.

Two cases

Let us take the treatment of whispering as an example of the individualization of punishment. In a room where whispering is rife, where the teacher's attitude is lax and all the pupils are inattentive and idle, it would be the rankest kind of injustice to single out one child and punish him for a fault for which all his world, and especially the teacher, is to blame. The punishment — poor lessons, bad habits, wasted effort, an inefficient school — must be borne socially, as it was caused socially. But in a school where the teacher has high ideals of attention and order and holds the pupils to them, a single boy who wilfully persists in annoying others by whispering should be severely dealt with. He has had every help and incentive to right-doing, and has chosen to transgress. The natural result of his offense is social, since many pupils suffer from the disturbance of his communication; but the object of his punishment is to individualize the penalty, to restrict it to the one person who is guilty.

When not to punish

It has been said that the three objects of punishment are the protection of society, the expiation of wrong doing, and the reformation of the offender. For practical schoolroom purposes, perhaps, the objects of punishment narrow down to the first and the last of these three. When other people do not need protection, when there is no prospect of reforming the offender through the infliction of pain of any kind, there is no object in meting out punishment. The culprit may be left to the natural punishment which is bound up in the nature of his transgression. But as there are few school offenses which will not, if uncorrected, result woefully for the school, and as human beings usually need the stimulus of penalty to keep them from evil, there are really few cases where no punishment should be given. That punishment should always, as Spencer says in his famous exposition, be proportionate to the seriousness of the offense, as well as inevitable and prompt.[1] But there are some cases in which teachers, especially young teachers fearful of failure in their duties, punish where there is no real guilt. For instance, many transgressions are due to ignorance or to bad habits acquired through the carelessness or selfishness of others, in which justice demands that punishment be commuted when possible if the offender shows a desire to change his ways. It would be manifestly unjust, for instance, to punish a room for whispering or noisy movements, if a former teacher had allowed such conduct under the cover of "spontaneity" or some other cloak for bad order.

Spencer's principle

IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED CONSEQUENCES

Nature punishes some offenses at once, and others after long waiting. The child who touches a hot stove is instantly burned, while he who eats too much pie and jam may not suffer from indigestion until after many years. Similarly, one boy who fails to learn his geography lessons misses promotion at the end of a term, while another passes, but loses a business opportunity ten years later, because of his ignorance. In determining the punishment for offenses, therefore, teachers may choose between immediate and deferred consequences. The question is one that rises frequently, and one that has bearings so intricate and perplexing that it is difficult to decide upon any very definite means of choosing between the two.

---

[1] Spencer, *Education*, N.Y., 1895, p. 175.

Advantages of immediate action

The advantage of immediate punishment lies in the powerful effect produced by quick action and an unmistakable association with the misdeed in question. Its moral effect upon others is usually stronger for this reason than that of delayed punishment. The fact that the reconciliation following punishment, the resumption of cordial relations between teacher and pupil, comes so much more quickly when punishment is given at once, than when it is delayed, is an additional reason for having it over with as soon as possible. The depressing effects of the sullen or fearful anticipation of a child who looks forward to a coming punishment are felt often by all the pupils in a room, and preclude the friendly and cordial relations that should exist.

Advantages of delayed action

On the other hand, delayed action has the important recommendation that it serves the ends of justice rather more surely than immediate action. Hasty judgment or sudden anger may prompt a punishment too severe, or mete punishment to the wrong person. Anger cools, and saving second thought brings many things to remembrance, with the passing of time. And, if the punishment be a just and severe one, suited to an offense of a serious nature (for which the delayed punishment is usually reserved), the delay may concentrate public opinion upon the case, so that the moral effect of the punishment when finally executed is far stronger than if it had been hastily administered. The impressiveness of deliberate action, which weighs all considerations well before decision is reached, tends to fix in the minds of those who observe it, the justice of the judicial process and verdict. A further advantage in delayed punishment is the opportunity for thought, given the culprit who awaits the deserts of his misdeed.

Age as a factor in decision

Owing to the greater power of older children to keep in mind the association between a deed and its consequences, punishment may wisely be delayed for them, when its effect upon young children would be lost by delay. Little folk not only forget quickly, but often fail to see relations of cause and effect at all. They associate the pain of punishment with whatever happens to be most related to it chronologically, not having learned by experience that cause and effect may be widely separated in time. This confusion is obviated when punishment follows a misdeed immediately. Children who are old enough for serious reflection, on the other hand, "carry over" the connection between deed and consequence and think about it as long as the incident remains open. For this reason the serious offenses of older pupils should, as a rule, not be punished at once, but left in a condition of suspended consequences for a time. Often the attention directed to them by the pupils themselves brings to the teacher valuable suggestions for the treatment of similar evils in the future, while the seriousness of the offense is emphasized. Slight offenses, of course, should be dealt with summarily.

Nature of the offense as a factor

Many offenses belong to the category of habit-breaking acts, which being neglected, undo the good work of much persistent effort on the part of both teachers and pupils. That instinct may aid volition, then, it is important that an act which breaks the sequence in a habit-forming series be followed at once by painful consequences. But if the offense be one of judgment, the mistake to be corrected is one of thought, and time should be allowed for contemplating the decision, that a reversal of the mistaken judgment may be made.

An analyzed misdeed

A boy in a village school in South Carolina played truant one sunny afternoon, took a horse from his uncle's stable, and rode far into the woods in search of nuts and mushrooms. In coming home the horse stumbled over a log, and was returned quite lame, late in the evening. After a consultation between the principal and the boy's uncle, it was decided that he should be punished at once for his truancy, since regular attendance was a habit that he should not have allowed to lapse. But the reparation made to his uncle was left for him to decide, and he was given a week in which to think about the matter. At the end of that time he announced that he would work for his uncle after school, giving up basketball and tennis, until he had paid him in work the bill of the veterinary who treated the horse, and the value of the horse's services lost because of his lameness.

Certainty as a factor

Again, unquestioned offenses, the lapses from habitual order which are undoubtedly subversive of the good of the school, may well be dealt with summarily. But where any doubt whatever exists concerning the placing of the blame, or concerning the justice of blame, it is safe and just to delay judgment until the question of equity is assuredly answered.

It is hoped that the foregoing considerations may be of help to teachers in deciding the difficult alternative of prompt and delayed punishment. But no rule that will always apply can be formulated. Chance circumstances may affect the policy used in ways that can never be foreseen. In general, however, it is safe to say that unless some circumstance points clearly to the wisdom of delaying judgment and punishment, that they should follow the misdeed as quickly as possible.

SUMMARY

The functions of punishment are to protect society from those inclined to exploit it for their own interest, to satisfy the demands of justice by expiation, and to reform the offender.

Offenses should be punished in the light of the motives prompting them, and the punishment should be visited upon individuals or upon society in accordance with the fixing of blame. Immediate punishment should follow offenses when there is need of emphasizing the connection between a deed and its result, but with older children delayed punishment may be more impressive. The age of the offender, his motives, and the certainty or uncertainty of his guilt are factors in deciding upon immediate or delayed punishment.

CHAPTER XI

PUNISHMENT (Continued)

UNDESIRABLE PUNISHMENTS

Threats

THE primitive ideas of government by force and obedience through fear are not so far from every one of us as we may flatter ourselves they are. They are still dominant in the teacher who punishes by threatening further punishment. It is true that punishment follows sin as its right and natural consequence; but to secure right conduct through imposing a dread of pain is to cheapen righteousness without strengthening it.

When a teacher sees fit to direct his pupils to do a thing, let him do so. It is not necessary to state the penalty for disobedience, and to do so presupposes a possible transgression. Children follow suggestions instinctively — they are an irresistible challenge to their imaginations. To say, "Do not do this, or such a thing will happen to you," is to give a dare that spirited children are quick to take. Besides, to attach a price to a transgression is to put it among the purchasable things. Many children, and many grown people as well, have an idea that they have a moral right to commit any sin they choose if they pay the price for it. Let things forbidden be forbidden absolutely, and let direction rest upon its real authority as the best expression of the will of society which the teacher can give. If the law be transgressed, then, the teacher has not bound himself to any course of action. He may punish as seems most wise and just, untrammeled by preconceptions of the nature of the offense.

Tasks The tasks imposed as punishments are of two classes — those which are extra lessons, and those which are entirely different from the usual school work. The latter are sometimes advisable, the former never. For instance: John had idled away the half-hour given him for studying his spelling-lesson, and in consequence had missed half the words. He deserved punishment for his idleness, and he needed to learn his spelling-lesson, therefore his teacher kept him after school. This extra session probably punished the teacher more than it did John, but if the teacher chooses to give extra time to her task she has a right to do so. Her first impulse was to say to John: "John, you may go when you can spell the words in this lesson correctly, and in addition ten from the next column."

Such a penalty, however, instead of changing John's attitude toward his work, would but intensify it. He who before thought spelling a bore, would class it now as an imposition. Work, which teachers want to make attractive, is reduced by such means to the plane of an activity for malefactors. John's teacher said to him:

"You wasted the half-hour which the other children used for learning this lesson, and so you must take another, which they have for play, in which to learn it. Then you wasted the recitation-period by writing a list of words spelled wrong, and now you must redeem that time by writing the list correctly. I'll pronounce the words for you when the time comes."

She then began to work on a set of papers which she had to correct, while John set himself to learn the spelling-lesson. In ten minutes' time he had mastered it, and asked if he might not recite.

A chance to think

"Certainly not," replied the teacher. "The half-hour which you wasted is not yet redeemed. I will call upon you when the time comes." As a rule children should not sit idly, but this teacher made John sit quietly during the remaining twenty minutes, which ticked away like so many hours for the impatient boy in the long, still room. Only the occasional rattle of the papers on the teacher's desk broke the silence. Once John heard his team, at basket-ball practice in the schoolyard, give a yell for Somer, who was taking his place as center. The half-hour was gone finally, and he wrote the list of words correctly at the teacher's dictation.

"Was the time long?" asked the teacher.

"I should say so. Ages," replied John.

"All of it?"

"Well, I didn't notice it until I got the lesson learned. Then it just dragged."

"Was the lesson the hard thing, then?"

"Oh, no. I got a lot of fun out of learning that lesson as fast as I could, because I thought you'd let me go when I had it. It was the rest of the time that I put in that I didn't like. Doing nothing is hard work, like you said once."

"But you can learn your lesson in ten minutes any day, and spend the rest of the time at the library table or the sand-map. You might as well have the fun of doing that every day, as to waste the period and then have to lose your play-time."

John thought this over a moment.

"I think I get the idea, Miss Thomas," he said.

He had, indeed, "got" a new idea of spelling lessons. He had also been appropriately punished for his wasted and misspent half-hour.

Writing long words or phrases dozens or hundreds of times, memorizing poetry, working extra problems in arithmetic, drawing maps, and looking up references are bad forms of punishment. They are bad, because they reduce the legitimate work of the schoolroom to disgraceful drudgery, confute the hardly-instilled idea of the dignity of labor, induce mental phlegmatism, and are both too easily-borne and too ordinary for efficient punishment.[1]

School service a bad punishment

There are some tasks which may be used as punishment, without quite so disastrous effects as those caused by this use of lesson-tasks. Pupils have been made to erase blackboards, carry coal, weed garden-beds, or carry materials, as punishments. The effect is similar, however, and less objectionable only as it affects secondary rather than the primary object of the school. Any teacher who knows how happy it makes children to be permitted to do even the meanest task about the schoolroom, will agree that nothing could be more unfortunate than to change the wholesome idea that to serve is an honor. Such punishments, moreover, are subject to the further criticism that they give to manual labor an unpleasant or even disgraceful connotation. There are sufficient means of punishment to be had without recourse to the expedient of using the pleasant, helpful school tasks in this way.

---

[1] A careful distinction is to be made between the use of lesson-tasks as punishment, and the requirement that lessons be mastered before they are left. Thorough teaching requires that a neglectful or deficient pupil be kept at his work until it is as well learned as possible. In the incident just given, for instance, the learning of the spelling-lesson was not a punishment; the detention for the extra twenty minutes was.

Staying in at recess, and after school

Detention during the time which is supposed to be free from formal school work is a very common punishment. It is used for two main purposes, the performing of regular lesson tasks which should have been mastered during the study period, and as an absolute punishment for misdemeanors. The first of these punishments is discussed in the following pages. The second seems to be rarely if ever justifiable, for these reasons:

1. It infringes on time needed for the outdoor play absolutely essential for normal children. It cheats the physical side of the child's development.

2. It lengthens the already long hours of the teacher's schoolroom employment. He, also, needs outdoor exercise.

3. It is unbusiness-like. Schools should close as promptly as they open, except for pupils who need extra help or time for the main object — the school work.

4. It makes a prison of the schoolroom, giving it a lastingly unpleasant connotation.

5. If idle, the pupil is forming a bad habit during the time of detention. If engaged in a school task,

he is forming the wrong idea of work. If allowed to do something he likes, he is not being punished.

Depriving of earned marks

An especially pernicious sort of punishment is to deprive a child of good marks already earned by good recitations or other good conduct, as a punishment for bad behavior. This method may indeed give a very effective check to misbehavior, for many bright children who value a high rating can be reached through a low grade quickly and easily. But the essential injustice, as well as the illogical confusion of two more or less distinct elements in the school record, has a demoralizing effect upon the developing sense of justice and appropriateness. For instance, in one school a teacher gives her pupils a zero for that day if she has to correct them during the recitation. As a consequence, the brightest boy in the class received 65 one month as a grade in algebra, because, having finished his problems before the rest, he could never resist the temptation to play while waiting for the others to finish. As there were good but slow pupils in the class whose grades were higher than the star pupil's, the teacher's judgment and justice were called into question. No explanation of the basis of grading could quite excuse so flagrant a discrepancy between the boys' work and the estimate of it given in the grades. The grade given for a study should represent the pupil's ability in that subject. Separate markings should show his deportment, if it is thought best to include that in the regular report.

Personal indignities

There is a class of punishments now so rare as scarcely to deserve mention here, but which were once common in public schools. These were the penalties whose essential feature was personal humiliation. They included the wearing of dunce caps, seating pupils on a dunce block, gagging (an old punishment for whispering), pulling hair, twisting ears, calling names, dressing boys in girls' clothes, and placing children in ridiculous and undignified positions for the school to laugh at. Humiliation is, or should be, part of all true punishments; but it should come from a realization of the loss of self-respect that follows on wrongdoing, and not from a crude action on the part of the teacher, the person above all others who should be a model of dignity to the children under his care.

Saturation

A very common method of punishment is to force the culprit to commit his offense until he has become thoroughly tired of it, when its association will be so unpleasant that he is presumed to be cured of the desire to repeat it. Arnold[1] has given the name of "Saturation" to this method. It is only moderately effective, and can be justified upon scarcely any psychological grounds. For instance, a boy who is humming under his breath is discovered, and set before the school with instructions to sing. He does one of three things. He may sing, in a spirit of bravado, to the delight of his classmates and the defeat of his teacher, as long as they have time to listen. He may be really ashamed, and obey slowly and reluctantly, in a faltering voice. He may be terror-struck or defiant, and absolutely and persistently refuse to obey. In the first case the punishment obviously fails to be a remedy. In the second it is an effective punishment, and the child may refrain from a repetition of the offense through a fear of consequences, which is better than no cure at all. But the reason for refraining from humming in school has not appeared in the punishment. The teacher can not really object to humming in school, argues the child, for she took time to have singing, which interfered with the school work far more than humming does. And there can be nothing intrinsically wrong with humming or singing in study time, or the teacher would not have a boy, even a bad boy, do it. In the third case the teacher has complicated her problem by increasing the offense, for which she must, if her authority is not to suffer, further punish the child. On the whole, the method of punishment by saturation is seldom advisable.

---

[1] *School and Class Management*, page 303.

The "appropriate punishment"

A too literal application of the principle that every misdeed leads to its appropriate penalty, has developed what some teachers fondly imagine are especially efficacious remedies. The scrubbing out of the mouths of boys guilty of profanity, with soft soap or washing powder, is an example of this sort of punishment. Doubtless it is not too severe for this sort of offense, but beyond its severity the penalty has little to recommend it. The simile stands in the way of the moral lesson. Not the boy's mouth, but the boy's soul, his character, has been polluted. The tying up of feet that have strayed in forbidden places, the sealing with clothespins or courtplaster of lips that whisper overmuch, are other examples of punishments that waste in mere ingeniousness the energy that should be spent in building up the pupil's reform. Too unusual a punishment absorbs the attention that should be focussed on a change of habit.

Sarcasm and ridicule

The least desirable of all punishments, perhaps, is the use of sarcasm and ridicule. This is because it destroys the first requisite for success in the teacher-pupil relation, which is confidence and friendliness. Sarcasm may occasionally, with pupils old enough to understand the point made, be effective in reformation; but young children understand the sting without catching the point. Ridicule has even less excuse. The only legitimate use of ridicule in the schoolroom is as a last resort with an inordinately conceited or impertinent child; and even then better means are usually to be found. In ordinary cases sarcasm is but a mean and self-indulgent means of venting the ill-nature of a teacher, and can not be condemned too severely. Ridicule indicates a fundamental and lamentable lack of sympathy with childhood, which takes itself very seriously and is hurt, above all things else, at levity in the attitude of others. To laugh with children is to be eternally young, to have found the secret of joy; but to laugh at them is the first sign of a bitter old age.

DESIRABLE PUNISHMENTS

Colgrove[1] gives, as legitimate negative incentives, the following classes of punishments: Reproof, public and private; loss of privilege; restitution, in cases of injury to property; detention to perform a neglected task; suspension, and in extreme cases corporal punishment and expulsion. The same authority gives the following rules for all punishments, which sum up pretty accurately the test to which disciplinary measures should be put. "All punishments should be used," says Dr. Colgrove, "only as temporary expedients to supplement positive incentives. Whenever possible, they should be the natural outcome of the pupils' misconduct. They should be just, proportioned to the gravity of the offense as measured by inner motives, not the outer act. They should be educative and reformatory; and they should be economical, not drawing unduly upon the nervous and emotional energy of either teacher, school, or offender."

---

[1] *The Teacher and the School*, page 390.

With some such limitations in mind as this category imposes, we wish to enumerate some of the means of punishment which are constructive in effect, reformatory in nature, helpful to the individual punished, protective with reference to others.

Isolation

The social nature of the school and of our natural instincts furnishes the cue for what is perhaps the most logical and effective of all punishments for older children, and at the same time one of the best reformatory measures. As a rule, children do not like school primarily because they like the lessons, but because they come into contact there with a great number of eager young people with whom they have a multitude of common interests. They lend themselves readily to the direction of teachers so long as their own wills do not clash with the guiding will for the school, or until the unity of the school life is broken by outside, opposing interests. That is, so long as the social organization of the school is satisfactory, so long as all contribute to its general purposes, there can be no trouble. But if one pupil breaks the unity by opposing his will to the guiding will which directs the activities of all, the social organization loses its effectiveness, the work or play halts, goes limping where it should go smoothly, or in extreme cases is altogether stopped.

A natural solution

Groups of children in their play have arrived instinctively at the sensible solution of the problem of the unsocialized individual. If one child refuses to play according to the rules, and can not be coërced into obeying them, he is excluded from the game, and may play by himself or not at all. The number in the game is less, but the unity of the playing group is not broken. Usually the child comes back after a time, because the incentive offered is greater than the satisfaction of maintaining his independence. If he do not, the pleasure of the group has not been sacrificed to the pleasure of one; the greatest good to the greatest number has been realized.

Alternative courses

Similarly, in the school, when one pupil or a group of pupils refuses to comply with the regulations which are made for the good of the whole body, there are two methods of dealing with them. They may be forced to comply, or they may be excluded from the social body of the school, and from the advantages that come from the school's social organization. In the earlier part of their school life, it is better to force them to comply, for habits are being formed at this time, not rationally, but by suggestion, imitation, and compulsion. But when the age of reasoning is reached, when we wish to develop the volition of children under the control of the reason and of high ideals, the force of a controlling will is largely withdrawn, and the pupil left free to make his own decisions. At this point it is important that the social nature of the school, its dependence upon the loyal support of each member, be made thoroughly clear, and with that the advantages of this combination of forces, the fruits of coöperation. Plainly, it is not fair that those who tear down the fabric should enjoy its advantages. They shut themselves out by their own action. They may justly — justly to the larger number — be excluded from the social activities of the school until they are ready to agree to abide by the rules of the game.

Methods of application

There are several practical ways of using this punishment of isolation. Troublesome pupils may be seated apart at the back of the room, where temptation is reduced to a minimum for all concerned. Refusing the privilege of oral participation in class exercises and general exercises, and of the privileges usually given to pupils (discussed more fully in the following pages under the head of deprivation of privileges), and giving a separate recess, as long as the regular recess but at another period, are ways of applying the principle of isolation as a punishment and corrective.

Reports to parents

The reporting to parents of the misdeeds of children is one of the punishments the wisdom and efficacy of which depend very much upon local conditions and individual circumstances. Some parents agree to be responsible for their children's behavior, and wish to have full and frequent news of their progress and standing. Others turn them over, body, mind, and immortal spirit, to the school, and demand results only. However, it is fair to parents that they should know when their children fall below the standard in any way, and the reception of the first report shows the teacher what leverage there may be in the parental attitude. With many children a report of wrongdoing to their parents is the most effective way of preventing a repetition.

Using public opinion

The feeling of social solidarity may be further utilized in building up traditions and customs of mutual responsibility, which go far toward eliminating the necessity for formal punishment. Children can be made to feel responsible for one another's conduct, and so take upon themselves, voluntarily, a degree of control which helps to develop their social natures and the feeling of social obligation. In attendance, for instance, if there be a conscious pride in having a good record for the whole room, each boy and each girl will make it his business to know why a classmate is absent; and if there be no good reason for the absence, to bring back the delinquent. The disapproval of his fellows is the most effective of all punishments; public opinion is among the strongest of all goads to action or incentives for restraint. The school in which the will of the whole body of pupils is bent toward good work and good order is an ideal state in little, a microcosm of the millennium.

Deprivation of privilege

A form of punishment which combines the good qualities of theoretical equity and effectiveness, is taking away the privileges of pupils. Freedom is rightly possessed by those who use it well; restriction is the penalty for selfish and harmful behavior. Some of the privileges which children appreciate, but of which they may be deprived as a punishment without interfering with their more important duties, are:

1. Passing books, pencils, etc., and collecting the same.

2. Going to water-bucket, waste-basket, or dictionary without special permission.

3. Playing with other children, or being a member of athletic teams.

4. Reading at the magazine table after finishing lessons.

5. Leading the line when marching, or exercises at recreation time.

6. The privilege of reciting in class. This is a rather severe punishment for children who care much for their standing or whose interest in school work shows itself in the natural desire to talk about it. The teacher's "I can't call on a boy who can't respect other people's rights," or "You have forfeited your right to talk in this class, Joe, until you can prove to us that you can talk at the right time," is a punishment that most children feel keenly. The lesson need not be lost on this account, as the teacher may require that it be written out and handed in for credit. It does not therefore work an injustice by reducing the grade or taking away all incentive for study.

7. The privilege of being a class officer or representative, or contestant for the school in an interscholastic contest.

Punishments for little people

With very small children, there are many ways of driving home the alienating effects of disobedience or other unsocial conduct, which older children would vigorously resent were any teacher so unwise as to try them. Conformity to custom and to the standards set for them is a strong characteristic of little folk.

To be deprived of the privilege of wearing their best clothes on Visitors' Day, for instance, is the most severe punishment that can be inflicted in a great public institution where the children wear uniforms. In many primary rooms, an effective punishment is to make the culprit stand for fifteen minutes in a circle chalked upon the floor. One teacher binds a small towel lightly over the faces of naughty boys and girls, because she "can't bear to see the faces of bad children." Another has a "naughty bench" out of sight behind the piano, where there is ample room and light for study, but where disturbing elements in the school may be safely isolated.

Punishment to be avoided

In some German schoolrooms, where each child has a little pot-plant all his own (a delightful custom, which might be adopted in American schools to advantage), this is taken away as a punishment, and kept in another room until better behavior wins it back. Putting boys into girls' clothes, or reversing the process for girls, is undignified even in primary schools. To put a boy into a corner, with a paper cap upon his head labeled "Bad Boy" (a modification of the old Dunce Cap) is no punishment at all for the soldierly lad, and a humiliating means of losing self-respect for others. The old expedient of standing children in corners should be sparingly used. It is an exhausting form of punishment from the physical point of view, and is especially dangerous because it is hard to find employment for the child, who sometimes emerges from such an experience farther from reform than he was before.

This aim of punishment should always be held in mind: the punishment that does not bring the offender nearer to the goal of responsible effort to do right, has at least partly failed, even though that punishment succeed gloriously in its good offices to other people. The ineffectiveness of much thoughtless punishment is illustrated by a story of the small son of a well-known Chicago educator. This man came home one day to find his little boy in tears. Being asked what was the matter, the sobbing boy finally made him understand that he had missed the words in his spelling-lesson.

To what purpose?

"But don't cry over that," urged his father. "You can learn them now. It isn't too late."

"But that isn't all," continued the little boy. "The teacher shook me, too. And the worst of it is, father, that I didn't know the words any better after she shook me than I did before."

In primary rooms

The deprivation of privilege sometimes appears in odd forms in a primary school. For instance, a very successful teacher sometimes declines to wear a pretty pink gown, which the children especially love, when they have been rude or selfish. Almost all primary teachers use the corresponding positive incentive, wearing bright and pretty waists or frocks to please the children. A big Teddy bear, which ordinarily sits on a little chair near the teacher's table in one primary room, comes down to visit the children and sits demurely beside them when they have been good; but disappears in the big closet when they have been noisy or rude. A teacher of immigrant children in New York utilizes the adoration of her charges for American heroes, by taking down the picture of Lincoln when a serious offense has been committed, or when a general attitude of mischief mars the day's work and play. The same act would scarcely, one fears, be a punishment for American children.

Restitution

The logical punishment for vandalism and theft is restitution. To mend the damage done as perfectly as may be is the very least that an offender can do. Further punishment is sometimes advisable, especially when restitution is accomplished without appreciable sacrifice on the part of the culprit. A boy from a wealthy home and the son of a day-laborer were playing ball in a forbidden court of the school premises, when the ball went through a large pane of glass. The mother of the rich boy sent a glazier at once to repair the damage, paying the entire expense. The father of the other boy wished his son punished for disobedience, which seemed to him the real sin. The teacher decided that both boys deserved a punishment for their disobedience, and proceeded to administer it. The mother who had paid the bill objected, saying that the damage was repaired and that the matter should therefore be dropped. She thought her son had been harshly and unjustly treated. The incident illustrates the impression that is liable to ensue when restitution is regarded as the only necessary sequel to such a deed.

Absolute honesty in restoring all that has been lost through the carelessness or wantonness of pupils is the only possible standard of punishment for deeds of vandalism. It is much better if the pupil be made to earn the means for repaying the loss, or do the work himself. Children should feel that they are responsible for the school or other property entrusted to them for use.

Suspension

If all ordinary means fail, there still remain the extreme measures of isolation — suspension and expulsion. A child is practically suspended whenever he is excluded from his classes; this is done sometimes by the individual teacher. It is plain that suspension gives no leverage for raising the pupil, unless he has a reason to fear its effects. If he misses classes for several days, he may fail that month, and perhaps for the term or year; but that is no incentive to good conduct, unless he *wants* to pass. Family and personal pride are the teacher's best allies here; and also the disgrace of suspension. Suspended pupils should not be sent home, but should be kept in the principal's office or some other place at school, while word is sent to the parents of what has happened. This does not apply to the pupil who may be trusted to do what he is told to do; but that sort of boy is not the boy who is suspended, as a rule. The suspended boy rarely goes home when sent; he seeks, with telepathic sureness, the haunts of the street loafers who will listen sympathetically to his tale of woe, and strengthen his resistance by justifying it. Even if he goes home, he is less likely to find the needed corrective guidance and suggestion there, than in some place under school control. Sometimes a talk with some business or professional man, preferably a board member, will send the culprit back to his work with a new point of view and a new resolve to do the right thing. There must be a plan of reformation, however; do not turn a suspended pupil loose on the world at this critical time. The enforced idleness of a long wait in the principal's ante-room gives a chance for thinking that prepares the child for the final interview.

At this interview the parents or guardians of the child should hear the story of the offense, first from the teacher and then from the child, after which the conditions attached to receiving the child again into the school should be stated fully. A frank talk usually results in a better understanding and in the reinstatement of the offender. Teachers can often tell parents wherein they fail in their duty toward their children, and parents can often return the compliment.

Expulsion

If a child is really unfit to attend the public school he should be removed. Expulsion is only for those boys and girls who are utterly unfit to be associated with other children. They are the degenerate, the hardened young offenders who corrupt the manners of their schoolmates, those who will yield to no ordinary means of control and cause constant trouble. To allow incorrigibles to remain in school, of course, is to encourage constant anarchy. There are other places for such children.

Manner

The expulsion of troublesome pupils may be managed in such a way as to strengthen the authority of the school. Where the pupil expelled has been a notorious offender, a certain degree of publicity, with no smoothing over of the disgrace involved, will do something toward counteracting his bad influence upon the school. The secret trial is seldom wise, except in cases where sensational disclosures would but feed an unhealthy appetite for scandal. Cases of expulsion should be treated very seriously, deliberately, and with a view to the moral effect of the action taken.

After expulsion

The case of the very bad boy is not disposed of when he has been excluded from the public school. Released from its restraint, he is in a fair way to do more harm than ever, unless he is put into some institution where he has a chance of reformation. To turn him loose in the streets is but to transfer his operations from a small field to a large one, and from one in which his good behavior is the definite business of someone, to one in which no one is delegated to look after him. The other half of the duty of the school authorities is to see that steps are taken toward the committal of such an offender to a reform school or other special institution, where special facilities and teachers may effect a change beyond the power of the public school to work.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Corporal punishment is generally regarded as a last resort among means of correction. It may save the day when all else fails, and so must not be read out of the list of possibilities; but it is dangerous, antiquated, and uncertain in effect. It is, as its opponents claim, a primitive means of control, unsuited to modern ideals of government and to highly developed and sensitive children. Many pupils in the public schools, however, are primitive creatures from primitive homes, and are sensitive only to the stimulus of bodily pain, or the humiliation that attends its infliction. "We face a condition, not a theory." We have in our schools children environed by ignorance and want and sin. They must tread, at least in part, the upward path traversed in generations past by the ancestors of more favored children, who evolved high ideals from experiences that abounded in knocks and cuffs. Where the methods of a past age are the only ones that will accomplish the work, there they must be used. The great task is to bring about the ends of the school; to be compelled to use harsh means is unfortunate, but to fail is a calamity.

A practical consideration

Corporal punishment is "a relic of the dark ages." So are those characteristics of human nature that will respond to no gentler stimuli. So are all the conditions of our living which keep alive the brutal in mankind. But to assume that all human beings, and especially those whose powers of rationalization are still rudimentary, may be governed by the motives that at present only the more advanced people comprehend, is utter foolishness.[1] To formulate an ideal of human relationship from which force may be eliminated, is a helpful and inspiring exercise; to base a comprehensive system of practical control upon it, to be applied to human beings now, is a Quixotic fallacy.

There has been much mushy sentiment of late years in some quarters concerning corporal punishment. It is true that at least nine-tenths of the floggings of times past were unnecessary. It is true that children properly taught are rarely bad, and that tact and kindness accomplish ends that force can never compass. It is true that children have been injured by brutal schoolmasters, and that injustice may condemn the innocent to unmerited pain. But those who have observed the effect of absolutely forbidding corporal punishment, who know how lawlessness, parental dictation, and insolence toward authority increase with the withdrawing of this one effective if arbitrary check, can not deny that it has still a place and a function in the scheme of school control. Sensible people, while rejoicing that the era of the hickory rod is gone forever, have little patience with that species of soft pedagogy which, in the face of the fact that some children are not amenable to persuasion, spares physical pain rather than use it to secure the ends of the school.

---

[1] Perry, *The Management of a City School*, pp. 266–7.

Sensible compromise

Where corporal punishment has been altogether done away with, it is usually the case that sentiment against it has been crystallized by some unjust or brutal case. To guard against this, especially in cities where the political situation imposes on the schools careless, ill-trained, time-serving teachers, there should be regulations which prevent hasty action, and which make it necessary to have witnesses to such punishment. Every safeguard against its abuse should be adopted — but corporal punishment should not be taken from the list of possible means of control. Reasonably administered, it is among the lighter punishments. With all due regard to the much-vaunted "sacredness of the person," one has no patience with the mawkish sentimentality which regards a paddling as an unpardonable affront to the dignity of childhood.

Dangerous methods of punishment

There are some kinds of corporal punishment which may permanently injure children, and which should therefore be forbidden strictly. These include the severe canings once in vogue, boxes on the ear, flinging children across desks and tables, striking upon the head, violent shakings, handslapping with a metal-edged ruler, and whipping with the little, clinging switches which raise hard welts and occasionally cause or aggravate skin diseases.

Safe methods

Paddling, slapping the cheek[1] or the hands, whipping (preferably with a wide-bore rubber tube), and striking the hands with a *light* ruler, are some of the means used with refractory children, which do not injure but do smart. The humiliation of being struck is, for most American children, far deeper than the physical pain is severe. This is especially true when punishment is given before other children — a procedure which some educators heartily condemn, while others contend that, since the offense is an offense against the school, that the culprit should be disgraced before his fellows, and the lesson impressed upon them. Be this as it may be, the nervous tension in a room in which a pupil is being punished is often so great that it punishes the innocent almost as much as the guilty. Most people have at some time experienced the breathless, impressive, "scared" quiet of such an occasion. It has sometimes a salutary effect upon the school; sometimes quite the opposite, after the immediate results are passed. Here is where some knowledge of psychology and sociology will stand the teacher well in hand; for it is the home training of the pupils, their degree of advancement in manners and motives, that must largely decide the method used to control them. There is no such thing as a secretly-administered corporal punishment; no matter how carefully guarded, the impressive details of such occasions are always public property soon after the event.

---

[1] There is danger that in aiming at the cheek the ear may be struck, consequently this mode is not recommended, and in many schools is strictly forbidden.

SUBSTITUTES FOR CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

The appeal to ultimate authority

All that has been said must not be construed as a recommendation of corporal punishment; it is but a frank statement of the necessity of meeting primitive minds with primitive arguments, and a justification of the occasional use of crude means to attain an all-important result. One of the most difficult problems facing teachers today, is that of finding an efficacious substitute for corporal punishment, where this method has been used until pupils and parents expect no other. An example of such effective substitution comes from southern Illinois, where a young girl, fresh from college, was engaged to teach a country school somewhat notorious for its troublesome big boys. The district had been in the habit of employing young men, who usually managed to maintain a fair degree of order and industry after flogging a few of the ringleaders of the unruly set. After a number of small misdemeanors, for which the new teacher found means of correction without recourse to corporal punishment, the oldest boy in the school committed an act of wanton vandalism so flagrant that all the other children said that, "Teacher will either have to whip him or give up."

The teacher had no mind to fight the battle of organized society, of law and order and culture, against this audacious young outlaw, single-handed. She had been waiting for some such occurrence to begin a well-planned campaign. She made her position on the matter clear to the school by giving it a quiet and very earnest talk upon the obligation of citizens toward the property of the state, and upon the sin of wanton destruction. The younger children were duly impressed, although they had no conception, even after explanation, of what "the state" meant. But the offender, although he listened respectfully, started home that night with an air of triumph. He had not been whipped, and he boasted gaily to his schoolmates that he would not be. He thought the incident closed, with the balance on his side.

Appealing the case

The teacher went to her boarding-place, called up each of the three directors, and bade them meet at her house that night for an important meeting. This, in itself, was a bold departure; no country school-teacher had ever called the directors together for a meeting in that vicinity before. The president was not sure that his dignity and prerogatives were safe — but he promised to go. Every family in the district knew what had happened by supper-time. The school, the teacher, and the offense were the topics of conversation that evening.

The teacher repeated her talk on vandalism to the directors. She added an outline of what she was trying to accomplish in the school. Having gained their approval for her program, she came back to the problem, this time in its more general phases. She reminded them of the reputation of the school, and appealed to their pride to help her change it. She had a definite plan, and needed only their hearty support to make it a success. One director, an uncle of the boy who had offended, declined to have anything to do with the case for fear of a family quarrel; the other two, partly from curiosity, promised their support.

Enlisting public interest

"Then," announced the teacher, "we will bring this matter up at an open meeting at the schoolhouse tomorrow night. Since Mr. Jones wants to be excused, Mr. Scammon and Mr. Hough will be the judges. I will present the case, and all who wish to attend may come, for this question concerns the whole district."

"I'll bet his father'll be there," remarked Mr. Scammon.

"Of course — I should hope so. He is surely more interested than anyone else in his boy's behavior," replied the teacher.

The news of the meeting to decide Henry Jones' case spread rapidly through the district. Mr. Jones, the director, held a long conversation with his brother over the telephone, on his return from the meeting, in which all the details of the occurrence were reviewed, Henry standing sullenly at his father's elbow to tell his tale. The father, although he admitted that Henry had done wrong maintained that the teacher was "no good" who would make so much fuss over such a thing.

"Why didn't she whip him and be done with it?" he inquired belligerently. "That ain't no way to teach school."

Henry went to school the next morning with a full dinnerpail, but he could not study and declined with great dignity to recite. At recess he was a hero; all the children forsook their play and gathered about him to discuss the situation. After recess he became very thoughtful, and the room was hushed to a sympathetic quiet. At noon he went home while teacher and school were eating luncheon. He even left the full dinnerpail upon the peg.

A new situation

The teacher had not miscalculated; the district turned out to the meeting. The Jones family attended to a man — Mr. Jones defiant, Mrs. Jones softly weeping, the director alert and non-committal. Neighbors discussed this unheard-of event gingerly, with curious eyes on Henry, who sat on a front seat, very white and defiant, crossing and recrossing his feet. The teacher presented her case clearly, quietly, in a speech that lasted almost an hour. She laid the blame for the misdemeanor partly upon the people of the district, who had failed to arouse a feeling of pride and responsibility in the children, because they did not have it themselves. She showed them that the lawlessness which had been the shame of the district was the result of carelessness and indifference on the part of the parents, and she drove home smartly the idea that it takes more than a teacher to make a school. She recommended that the board order Henry Jones to make good the damage he had done, and to promise then and there, not to her but to all the people of the district, that he would not repeat it. Henry Jones' father, relieved at this leniency, directed his son to do this, and he complied. Then the teacher spoke again, in an appeal for support and coöperation. Several men asked questions, and some objected because it would raise the taxes to carry out her plan. They did not carry it out very fully, as it proved, for this very reason. But the ideas there brought to that country community for the first time have taken root in the minds of the people, and some day they will bear fruit. The teacher, on closing her school the next May, wrote out for her own satisfaction the results that had already come from her course with Henry Jones. The list read as follows:

Some results

1. It interested the whole neighborhood for once in the school.
2. It shifted the responsibility of dealing with an offender from the teacher to the Board. This was a good thing in this case because:
   (*a*) It awakened the Board to its responsibility for the school.
   (*b*) It reminded the people that their elected representatives are the proper school authority.
3. It put the Jones family in a humiliated position in the community; and Henry will not be allowed to repeat such an offense.
4. It gave me a chance to talk to the people about an improved school.
5. It helped make Henry a better boy.
   (*a*) He was impressed by a new idea — that being bad in school is an offense against the community, not a successful attempt to outwit the teacher.
   (*b*) The anxiety of the night and day of suspense seems to have matured him. He is more thoughtful.

(*c*) His public promise to do better gives me a firmer hold on him than I could have won from a proved ability to "lick" him.

(*d*) He had to repair the damage done. He has experienced the weight of the law, and has a new respect for it.

Outgrowing the personal attitude

The moral of this example is that the majesty of the state is more impressive than the smart of the rod. The hard thing is to devise means of giving the pupils any conception of the great power of organized society. They can see the teacher, who is but one human being, perhaps easily frightened, weak and incompetent; but they can not even imagine that all the people in their community own the public school and mean that it shall be a success. If this truth can be brought forcibly to the pupils, and to the parents also, the necessity for corporal punishment can thereby be greatly reduced.

Tongue-lashing

Corporal punishment has been done away in some schools only to give place to a substitute far more demoralizing in character. Words cut deeper than blows, and the sharp reproaches and heartless taunts heard in some schoolrooms destroy friendliness and ambition far more effectively than a severe whipping. There is a kind of honor in taking a merited punishment; most children suffer such without resentment, because their own sense of justice supports its infliction. But no child endures an abusive harangue without bitter inward resistance. The teacher who descends to the use of diatribes to secure order has lowered his dignity to the point at which the respect of pupils ceases; and his removal from the teaching force is the best thing that could happen to that school. One sees this evil at its worst in any great school system where numbers of ill-trained teachers are retained year after year because political conditions are such that they can not be dismissed. They are teachers for whom the appalling problems of a city schoolroom offer no solution so effective as corporal punishment; denied that by strict rules, they take refuge in a course of diatribe that produces results as thorough, while remaining within the letter of the law. The teacher who taunts pupils with their stupidity or their foreign extraction, who applies abusive terms to them, scars characters in a way that makes the pain and humiliation of even a severe whipping, a light thing in comparison.

The serious talk

There is a way of talking to pupils who have done wrong, however, which is much used where formerly corporal punishment served, and usually with good results. This is the kindly and serious discussion of an offense and its results, immediate and remote; followed by an appeal, or a statement of the conditions under which punishment is deferred or remitted. The following order of procedure has been found most effective in securing the reform of delinquents through private talks:

1. Secure the admission that the accusation is a true one. If the pupil denies part of it, arrive at an understanding as to the extent of his offense. Be satisfied that he is telling the truth, at least as he sees it, before going farther.

2. By showing the consequences of such actions, both to himself and to others, secure a frank statement from the child that he is wrong.

3. If possible, arouse in the pupil a sense of remorse for his offense, since this gives an emotional reënforcement to the resolve to do better. But be very careful that this feeling is a genuine one, not a pretense intended to "work" the teacher. The admission of wrong-doing is necessary; sorrow for it is of great help, but should be voluntary, secured by suggestion rather than requirement.

4. Require now a promise that the offense shall not be repeated, and register this promise in a book kept for the purpose, the promise signed and dated, and witnessed by the teacher.

SUMMARY

Good and bad forms of punishment

Threats, school work, detention during recreation or rest periods, depriving of marks earned by good work, personal indignities, "saturation," and the super-"appropriate" penalty, are not helpful forms of punishment except in rare cases. Tongue-lashing is the worst of all punishments in its hardening and vitiating effects. All punishment should answer the requirements of justice, reformation, and economy. Among those which are effective in gaining these ends are reproof, isolation, wisely and temperately used; reports to parents and to higher authorities; the humiliation or disgrace of a group of which the offenders are members; deprivation of privileges, restitution where it is appropriate and just, and in extreme cases, corporal punishment, suspension and expulsion.

Corporal punishment is to be used for the most part with young children, to whom it is a form of inhibitory pain; and with older children who have not advanced beyond the motives that normally operate with undeveloped characters. Used with discretion where it is the only effective means, it is entirely justifiable. But a rational presentation of the nature and effects of the offense, with a parole system and a set of records which act as a check upon the tendency to repeat it, will often be as effective as corporal punishment even with stubborn delinquents. The appeal to ultimate authority as a support to the local authority of the teacher is another useful and valuable substitute for corporal punishment.

CHAPTER XII

DISCIPLINARY DEVICES

PREVENTIVE DEVICES FOUNDED UPON THE MODE OF ABSOLUTE AUTHORITY

Meeting the situation

THE teacher who takes no chances begins by planning the life of his school in an orderly and detailed way. Before the school begins he has decided on the order of entering and leaving the room, on signals for all the movements of classes, on regulations for leaving the room, and for the use of the dictionary and other reference works, and on the manner of using and caring for blackboards and other apparatus. It is especially important that the merging of exercises and the intermissions between classes be planned to go smoothly and as quietly as possible. He goes farther than the planning of the normal life of the school, and decides on a course of action to be followed instantly when the usual offenses occur, as they are fairly sure to do. This preconceived plan of action may need to be changed when the moment comes, owing to unusual and unforeseen circumstances; but if it be reasonable and based upon successful experience, it will hold in all ordinary cases. Even to make a slight mistake in the manner of correction is less dangerous than to let the offense go uncorrected, or to commit the greater blunders that are liable to occur when one acts upon the impulse of the moment. Quick action usually prevents recurrence. The more thoroughly all emergencies are provided for, the more sure is the teacher's hold upon the situation. Unless he has an unusually orderly and retentive mind, he will find it worth while to *write out* both the administrative and the corrective devices that he proposes to use. These he should keep to himself, however, never mentioning them to the school until the occasion for their use comes. Children respect a teacher who seems always to know just what to do under all circumstances. The man with a plan is always master of the situation. Those people who seize opportunity are not as a rule people of lightning-fast brain processes, but people who have slowly and carefully worked out, ahead of the need for it, a plan of action for each situation that may arise.

One function of the primary school

If this part of the teacher's work is thoroughly done in the lower grades, the good habits there established will be so fixed by the time the pupils reach the grammar school, that the work of rationalization and the development and training of new powers soon to assert themselves, can go forward unimpeded. New problems arise constantly, to be sure, so that the necessity for prevision is never absent; but it may be minimized in upper grades if the primary teacher be thoroughly "forewarned — forearmed."

The disciplinary value of the fire-drill may be mentioned in connection with this topic. The concentrated activity, the mental alertness and self-control that are developed in the fire-drill make it a valuable exercise, entirely apart from its value as a safety device. The need of discipline is never so great as in time of fire, when the value of prevision has a vivid and impressive illustration.

The pupil's conception of the teacher's position

The idea of the position and authority of the teacher which children acquire from their families and associates, is often very crude and inadequate. This is natural in a new country, in which social and official classes and distinctions are still in a state of flux. Teachers can do much to remedy this condition, which is responsible for a poor spirit in many schools and for a variety of specific offenses, by clarifying in the minds of the pupils their relations to their teachers. This will tend to build up in the next generation that solid respect for the school as a social institution, which will make its work more effective than it has been or is now. There should be no foolish self-deprecation, no self-conscious timidity, in this process. The teacher who is not worthy of the finest respect has no business in the profession; the teacher who shrinks from the delicate but necessary task of educating people who need it, to an appreciation of his position and the dignity of his work, is begging the question in just the way that will perpetuate the condition that we deplore. Frank talks with pupils on the organization, purpose, "backing," and importance of the school system, will tend to increase the earnestness and sincerity of their work, and eliminate petty resistance to the necessary routine.

The teacher's benevolent despotism

The ideal teacher is a benevolent despot in his school. His authority should be unquestioned, his use of it wise, helpful, and limited. Children should be encouraged to help themselves and solve their own problems, but when a question comes to the teacher for settlement, the decision must be carefully considered and just enough to be final. Here is one of the places in which the thoroughly trained teacher has an immense advantage over the teacher of limited education. Knowledge does give power. Knowledge wins the respect of children. Sympathy, quiet authority, and real knowledge that does not need to seek recourse in bluffing, win the hearts of pupils.

Official coöperation

An essential prerequisite for good order in schools is a friendly relationship, or at least an unquestioning coöperation, between the teacher in charge and his chief. It is the business of the teacher to carry out the plans of the principal, supervisor, or superintendent as fully and as conscientiously as possible. If he thinks the plan a mistaken one he has every right to object — stating his protest, not to the pupils, their parents, or other teachers, but first to the chief in question, and later if necessary to a higher authority or to the Board of Education. If the objection is not sustained, the teacher has the alternative of resigning or of carrying out the will of his chief. Unity and coöperation are as necessary among the teachers of a system as among the pupils of a room.

Bad influences that may be stopped

Summary means may be used to put a stop to certain bad influences which often demoralize a schoolroom. There are minor laws in most states, for instance, which make it a serious offense for a child to enter a saloon. The law is often badly enforced, as are laws against the selling of cigarettes to minors, and others of like purpose. A determined teacher, acting personally or through officers of the law, can usually put a stop to illegal selling. A candy store near a schoolhouse is a more serious problem, for there are no laws against the selling of candy, although the adulterated stuff sold is often a serious menace to health. All of these evils, with the picture-play theater and the vaudeville house and the electric arcade and other diversions, should be examined and passed upon by teachers at frequent intervals, and all possible means to control or eliminate them, if harmful, pressed into service.

PREVENTIVE DEVICES FOUNDED UPON THE MODE OF PERSONAL INFLUENCE

Complaisance

The simplest way of securing good behavior from pupils through the use of personal influence, is to ask it as a personal favor. Pleasing the teacher is usually a strong motive with very young children, with foreign children to whom the school opens up a new and wonderful world of which "Teacher" is the guardian angel, and with all children of an amiable and obliging temperament. It is not an evil motive, but it becomes inadequate after a time, being too narrow in its results to be depended upon as a life-motive. Without being superseded, it should gradually become subordinate to higher principles. Where these higher principles fail to function it may still be employed, even with High School students, but always with the end in view of developing a broader basis than personal loyalty as an actuating motive. Pretty teachers with winning manners, who depend upon their personal charm to secure results in the schoolroom, fall short of well-performed duty in failing to generalize the willing response to their appeal.

Clarification and emphasis of ideals

The more permanently effective use of personal influence is so to emotionalize fine ideals that children are impelled to adopt them into their scheme of living. There are two processes here — first, the clarification of the ideal, the mere explanation of the significance of the words that stand for the idea; and, second, a strong and varied emphasis upon it, that shall present it so vividly and constantly as to make a permanent, emotionalized, conduct-compelling ideal.

The most successful way of doing this is to arrange a definite program, by which one virtue after another is brought to the children's notice for concentrated attention. Sometimes two virtues are studied together. In a public school in Brooklyn where this system is used, the following program was used in 1910–11:

September — Cleanliness and Clean Language.
October — Obedience and Self-control.
November — Kindness and Gratitude.
December — Courtesy and Friendship.
January — Industry and Thrift.
February — Patriotism and Duty.
March — Honor and Loyalty.
April — Honesty and Truthfulness.
May — Peace and Quietness.
June — Courage and Perseverance.
July — Sincerity and Temperance.
August — Cheerfulness and Love.[1]

---

[1] This program is a variation of that suggested by Miss Brownlee in a little book describing the Brownlee system. Copies of Miss Brownlee's book, which contains a more explicit description of this work than space will here permit, can be obtained for 10 cents of The Holland Patent Book Cover Co., Springfield, Mass. Teachers will find the book very helpful.

The virtues to be studied are dwelt upon in short periods of concentrated thought, the pupils being encouraged to express their ideas about them. Stories from their experiences or observation that illustrate the motto of the month are brought in; the mottoes are placed conspicuously on the board in each room of a school, and posted on large sign-boards in the halls. Every means is used, in fact, to emphasize the virtue under consideration without direct preaching on the part of the teachers.

Strengthening the teacher

The personality of the teacher is, after all, the greatest factor in the mode of control through influence. The respect which nobility and sincerity inspire, entirely aside from the affection which springs from gratitude or congeniality, is among the very strongest motives to good conduct. Colgrove quotes from Baldwin[1] nine factors which go to make up the qualifications of a successful disciplinarian:

1. Bearing, the inspiring factor.
2. Tact, the managing factor.
3. System, the organizing factor.
4. Will power, the controlling factor.
5. Heart power, the winning factor.
6. Teaching power, the vital factor.
7. Pupil insight, the guiding factor.
8. Culture, the commanding factor.
9. Character, the uplifting factor.

The lesson of the parochial school

In connection with a consideration of the teacher's personality, there is a valuable lesson to be had from the church schools conducted by certain religious sisterhoods. Children who have been notoriously troublesome in public schools, when transferred to the schools conducted by the teaching orders, often become model pupils, yielding respectful and unquestioning obedience to the sisters in charge. Pupils who have attended such schools attribute their attitude to the reverence in which the sisters are held. Their costume and manner of living, suggesting always the fact that they are set apart from the world and have devoted their lives to religious service, give them a peculiar sacredness in the eyes of their pupils. This feeling is as a rule fostered by all the influences of environment, so that to disobey a sister appears a far more heinous offense than to disobey any lay authority. So effective is the fine respect which training engenders for the teaching nun, that it functions as a deterrent among those whose natural and acquired tendencies are all toward mischief.

---

[1] *School Management*, Part iii, page 95; Colgrove, *The Teacher and the School*, page 380.

Respect for all teachers

If the secret of the success of the teaching nun lies in the fine respect and reverence which her calling evokes, may not the situation in our public schools be improved by bespeaking for the lay teacher a degree of respect consonant with the importance and sacredness of her calling, and by insisting that these teachers be such as command the respect of all? Certainly, in point of devotion to duty and allegiance to the trust imposed in them, a great throng of lay teachers fall little if any short of the women who have taken perpetual vows. Yet parents fail grievously to instil into their children the idea that to disobey such a woman or to cause her trouble is an impropriety not to be dreamed of. To expect any such millennial change in the attitude of the public is to engage in idle day-dreams, except as it may be hoped for as the result of an improvement in the teaching force, not beyond the scope of present possibility. This is not to say that teachers should or can ever command the reverence which is paid to the woman who gives up her life to a distinctly religious service. It is simply to emphasize the fact that an appreciation of the high calling to which teachers devote their time deserves, in itself, a degree of honor which is not accorded to them at present; and to suggest that, were teachers as a class as conscious as they should be of the dignity of their position and the requirements of character and preparation that their work asks of them, the respect so commanded would go far to solve the problems of administration that are now so vexing.

The great desideratum — the character of the teaching force

The attitude of some teachers, usually young and ill-prepared ones, which resents the name of "teacher" and the connotation of the calling, deprecates the value of the service they give, and is satisfied with the standards of the people with whom their lot may be cast, has its own ill effect upon the standing and work of the school. Fine character in the men and women who make our schools we must have. Great endowments, fine equipment, stately buildings, varied curriculums, and elaborate organization are nothing if culture, dignity, and nobility do not characterize the people whose work is the very heart of our free educational system.

The second factor — training

"Character" is so general and inclusive a word that it includes many of the requisites for teachers; the rest may be included if we add to the first requirement another, namely, that a teacher be trained for his work. Many good men and women have failed ignominiously, in spite of the noblest traits of character, because their training had not fitted them for the special work of education. Every kind of training that a teacher has is of worth and use, directly or indirectly, in a modern school. People are beginning to see that the great work of bringing up children can not be intrusted to people who have not studied the subject specially.

Recipes for failure

Between natural gift and engrafted skill, the teacher should embody in his own personality the essentials of success in discipline, providing conditions are at all fair. A compilation of characteristics which make almost certainly for failure in schoolroom management is not hard to make; examples are too plentiful.[1] Here is a list of ten types of teachers who can hardly hope to succeed:

1. The teacher too ignorant and crude to command the respect of his students.
2. The conceited or bigoted teacher, whose pretensions or narrownesses provoke their derision.
3. The weak-willed teacher.
4. The teacher ignorant of working devices.
5. The teacher whose life outside the schoolroom does not command the respect of pupils or townspeople.
6. The teacher who descends to the level of his pupils, treating them with easy levity and familiarity; *and the gossip*.
7. The taskmaster and the tyrant.

---

[1] See Arnold's classification of inefficient teachers, in *School and Class Management*, pp. 129–134.

8. The teacher who wants, above everything else, to be popular.
9. The lazy teacher.
10. The threatener who does not "make good."

The voice

In this connection the teaching voice is important. Quiet manners in teachers are of immense value, and a low voice pays especially good dividends on the investment of care and training that its acquiring means. Americans have proverbially unpleasant voices, and the strain of constant use to which the schoolroom puts the vocal organs spoils many a good one. Teachers who are conscious of having the harsh, high-pitched voice which raises the nervous tension of the schoolroom, need to take systematic steps to develop lower, richer, clearer tones. Imitation will help more in this matter than anything else. Listen to the rich, sweet voice of an English woman of good breeding — not necessarily of high class. The beautiful voices of the English and German peasants are a revelation to Americans. Find, then, first of all, a person who does have a good voice, and listen daily if you possibly can. Notice the pitch, the intonation, the repose, the placing of the voice. Make yourself sensitive to tone-quality by observing the voices of the people among whom you live. Observe every means of reminding yourself of your effort, in order that constant practice may aid in the formation of your new habit of speech. Apply all the laws of habit-formation, in fact.[1] The new power which a fine voice gives, together with the pleasure of using a voice that people really enjoy hearing, is more than worth the trouble that it costs to re-form the voice after reaching years of maturity. And every good voice is an element in the removing of a national reproach.

---

[1] James, *Principles of Psychology*, I, chapter iv. Every teacher should read this chapter at least once a year.

PREVENTIVE DEVICES FOUNDED UPON THE MODE OF WHOLESOME REPLETION

Crowding out evil

This method seeks to supply good interests in such fulness that no time or attention is left for mischief. It is founded upon the belief that there is, even for the most wilful and mischievous child, some wholesome activity whose appeal is stronger than the desire to create a disturbance or satisfy a selfish wish. The means of occupying the time of high-school pupils have been enumerated in the discussion of this mode, and need not be repeated here. There are three sets of activities which should be possible to school children, to fill the time of three periods in their day. First, there should be ways in which to spend the time left over after lessons are prepared, without disturbing the school. Many bright children acquire lazy mental habits because the preparation-time allowed for average pupils (the class from whose abilities the school takes its standards of requirements) is more than they need. They dawdle in preparing their lessons because they do not need to hurry, and because there is no incentive for concentration and close application. The time remaining is probably wasted in play that brings no good results, unless means for activities of a helpful sort are provided. In the lower grades, all forms of busy-work, including sand-table and clay-box, may keep little hands out of mischief. In the upper grades,

Redeeming the time

a reading-table supplied with supplementary reading-books, magazines, and pictures prevents trouble. The duty of the cleaning-squad is to keep halls, steps, and grass-plot free from paper, and to report to the teachers and janitors spitting, marking of premises, and disorder. This squad may be made up of pupils of high standing who have permission to slip out of their rooms whenever they have finished their lessons, to attend to their duties. In country schools, older brothers and sisters may be permitted to help the little folk with their writing, spelling, or busy-work, thus keeping both employed while the teacher gives her attention to the recitations of the other pupils.

School officers

In the Jena practice school there are seven pupil-officers in each grade, whose duties are respectively:

1. The care of boards and sponges.
2. Dusting the teacher's table and chair.
3. Opening the windows at recess to flush the room with fresh air.
4. Changing the date on the large calendar-pad.
5. Keeping clean water in jugs and glasses.
6. Filling ink-wells.
7. Care of books and note-books in the class-cupboard.

Besides these class officers, who are chosen in order in a weekly change, there are others appointed for the semester to put away and take out maps, rulers, books, and other things not in constant use.[1] The children learn to take care of valuable things, and are benefited by the sobering effect of responsibility. The teacher, moreover, gains much time otherwise expended upon mechanical work which is not a means of growth to him, to put upon reading or study which will make his work better. This work, remember, is to be done in school hours as a part of the school work, and not to be taken from playtime, except perhaps on very rainy days, and where there is no roofed playroom.

---

[1] *Aus dem Pädagogischen Universitäts-Seminar zu Jena*, drittes Heft, herausgegeben von Professor Dr. W. Rein, 1891, page 35.

Recreation periods

The attention of pupils is likewise to be wholesomely employed during recesses, and before and after school. Supervised play is a comparatively new element in American education, but it bids fair to eliminate a great deal of evil. The children in many country and village schools simply do not know how to play. They stand or sit around at intermissions, gossiping and staring idly at each other or at passers-by. They need to be taught lively games, organized into teams, forced really to play until they form the habit and do it spontaneously. There are several good books upon the play movement, and texts describing games and the delightful folk-dances which children love and which arouse an interest in the people of other lands.

Home time

Third, the teacher may sometimes have some control of home time. It is not wise to attempt this unless it is plain that conditions need bettering, for where the home still seems fairly adequate for its share of child-training responsibility, it should be let alone. But if children are allowed to be upon the streets or in places of harmful amusement, during the evenings, the school may lessen the evil by providing home work and recreation that will occupy the evenings. Especially, it is the duty of school authorities to set and preach a standard of opportunity for boys and girls who are trying to learn lessons at home. The secret of far too many failures is that parents neither provide a separate study-room, nor see to it that quiet reigns in the family living-room during a definite and strictly observed study period. Games, gossip, the visits of neighbors, the crying of babies, the discussion of family problems, go on unchecked where young people are trying to force their flighty attention to unfamiliar subjects. The ideal of a regular study hour, with enforced quiet and steady application, may often be set before parents with such promise of its good effects for their children, that they adopt it readily and gladly.

INTEREST AND DISCIPLINE

The greatest problem

All devices for crowding out evil by occupying well the recreative periods of school life, dwindle into comparative insignificance before the great, fundamental problem, the greatest of all — that of creating so real and so intense an interest in the essential work of the school that petty distractions will have no power to gain attention. In spite of the thousand new elements in school training, fads that pass or essentials whose importance we are but just beginning to realize, — things illustrative, cultural, recreative, — there persists always a core of solid, fundamental school studies which all sane teachers aim to keep dominant through every temptation to sacrifice them. They are essential because of the universality of their need. All men and women need them; they are the foundation-requirements. Such subjects as reading, writing, necessary number, the laws of health, the ability to speak our own language correctly, some knowledge of the history and geography of the world and especially of our own country, and the fundamental principles of ethics — these things are the essentials in the common schools. They are to be sought first, and other things added to them.

Essentials

The "other things," however, are not the bait in a trap or the chocolate coating on a bitter pill. There is matter of intrinsic interest in every department of knowledge, and the most essential things may be made really interesting, as well as the many other branches which enrich the curriculum. Just at the core of positive, constructive good discipline lies the art — it is an art — of making the essential things, the most necessary studies, attractive. Although every study has its own intrinsic interest, the appeal of some studies, such as music, manual training of all kinds, drawing — those studies in which eye and hand are actively engaged — is more immediate, more enhanced by quick reward, than studies whose value children can see with difficulty if at all. They must accept these on faith; and these are usually lowest in easily aroused interest. The teacher's problem is to find and show the points of appeal, to emphasize positive incentives, to make his pupils realize the desirability of the art or the information for which they are working. If real interest can be aroused, he knows that the wholesome pursuit of knowledge will crowd out evil.

A false solution to the problem

There is a question-begging substitute for a real solution of the interest problem, which we are very liable to use in these days when so much is done to give variety and pleasure to school life. This is a dependence upon the easily aroused interest in the lighter studies, rather than sincere seeking of the intrinsic interest in the more difficult subjects. Children may be taught to endure grammar, arithmetic, and spelling, for the sake of the drawing, cooking, or bench-work in which they take a ready delight. They are hustled through the history lesson, which they find "dry," because it is easy to hold their attention during the music lesson. This is wrong. "This ought ye to have done, and not to have left the other undone." *Each study has its own interest,* which teachers should find and demonstrate. There are teachers who excuse themselves for slighting a study because they "never liked it themselves." This is intellectual cowardice and inexcusable laziness. It is a childish and narrow policy. A poorly taught child may have an excuse for disliking one or more studies, and most people master easiest those which they like best; but the teacher, unless a specialist, owes allegiance to all subjects included in his own curriculum. He has no business to hand on his own subject prejudices to his pupils. He is committing a sin which will inevitably be reflected in the spirit and work of his school.

The real solution

Lack of interest shows itself in weariness and lack of attention. There is a false and a true weariness, however, and the first thing necessary is that the teacher learn to distinguish between the two. True weariness or fatigue is caused by the using up of energy, and comes when attention and effort have been concentrated upon work until the child's resources are exhausted. There are two common causes for this true fatigue when it occurs in school, both originating and to be corrected at home, if possible. The child may be too poorly nourished to have strength for a reasonable amount of work. Where dire poverty is the cause, as in large cities, the school lunch seems to be the only logical remedy for this evil until economic and social conditions change. A bowl of hot soup and a thick slice of bread may turn a stolid, weak-willed child into a willingly, brightly attentive one. Where malnutrition comes from poorly selected and cooked, rather than insufficient food, education of the mothers is the remedy — not very easily realized, to be sure. Within another generation, however, when the girls now studying cookery have become the homemakers, this evil will grow appreciably less. The second cause is too heavy home work, or outside work which keeps the child up late at night.

False fatigue or boredness

So much for real fatigue. But the greater problem is the weariness, not of exhausted but of unapplied resources. It is the boredness which causes children to throw aside their work from sheer lack of interest in it, and to feel that the lack of interest is a legitimate excuse for their neglect of it. It is unfortunate that there has grown up with the Doctrine of Interest, a mischievous heresy which accepts just this excuse. Teachers who allow such excuses to stand, do so at a sacrifice of character as well as of work quality. All good work is interesting. Find the interest, hunt it out — but if it eludes pursuit, *the work is still to be done.*

Why interest fails

When pupils are not interested, the fault may be their own or the teacher's. If it be the teacher's, his first duty is to master the art of presentation, to lay the lures that tickle curiosity, to supply the means of arousing interest. This involves the whole field of special method, which of course can not be discussed here. Four causes of lack of interest, however, are so common, and consequently so influential in the sphere of discipline, as to deserve mention. First, the presentation may not be sufficiently vivid to arouse even a mild initial curiosity, in which case no child can be blamed for not wanting to pursue so unpromising a subject.

The textbook evil

The slavish use of textbooks is largely to blame for the inefficiency of teachers in giving assignments and hearing recitations, as well as the overcrowded condition of our schools, which forces many good teachers to do their work in a mechanical way. American teachers do not teach. They hear recitations. Our texts are usually good, but in the hands of teachers who shift to them the whole responsibility of instruction, they are a source of weakness, not of strength. Good texts can never take the place of good teachers. As professional training increases, the evil of textbook dependence will be reduced. Probably most teachers have remarked that if nine things be studied from a book and a tenth told by the teacher, the tenth fact is the one that is remembered on examination day — or any other day. The greater vividness of *viva voce* presentation is the reason.

Equipment

Poor equipment is another cause of poor interest. Geography lessons without maps, history lessons without pictures, drawing lessons without variety of models, all are liable to be dry and tedious. The improvement in school work and spirit, lasting sometimes for several days, upon the installation of a new globe or dictionary or picture, has been remarked often. Not only in the lessons in which they are used, but in every phase of school life, is felt the stimulus of a new incentive to effort.

Assignment The assignment may not be problematic. It may hold out no lure, beckon to no new land, have no mystery to solve, no real difficulty to surmount. Red-blooded children resent "an easy one," or one which, perhaps difficult enough, offers no prize for the seeking. The assignment is the key to the interest situation, because if skilfully made it holds out, in the lesson to be mastered, a puzzle to be solved or a prize to be won. It makes a promise of something worth working for, and in motivating effort gives to it a character that makes it the solution, the very best solution, to the discipline question. But if the assignment be a dry and hopeless announcement of the pages in to-morrow's sentence, there is little or no interest to absorb the healthy curiosity that children have. They must satisfy it in some other way, find another exercise for their energy than hunting up answers to fascinating questions.

Correlation Last, the work needs to be correlated with other work, and to take hold on life, both in and out of school, by many tentacles. It must be applicable, timely, concrete, alive.

Having used the means at his command to make the work intrinsically appealing, the teacher's duty to interest is performed, and the pupil's begins. But the teacher's duty to his pupils is not performed; it may be but just begun. For it may be that after the teacher has done all that time and resources permit, the work still remains uninteresting to the pupils. The natural flightiness of young and untrained minds, the narrow self-centeredness of childhood, or the attitude of the home or the community in which the pupil lives, may prevent a response to the lures to interest thrown out. If this be the case, and especially if the child seeks to excuse idleness or lack of preparation with "I just can't seem to like it,"[1] the absolute authority of the teacher should be brought into requisition. That child should be *made* to apply himself. There is a fortunate psychological law in accordance with which interest is aroused automatically upon real application to the subject, and this interest grows until real weariness checks its increase.[2] He who defies the lack of interest, and pursues a subject in spite of it, sometimes finds a wealth of interest as his reward, and always enough to repay the effort.

Where old-fashioned methods are needed

It is worth while to teach children this law in a simple way, by means of simple reminders upon appropriate occasions, or by a motto kept always before them. But more important than the incentive to reward is the ideal of faithfulness to duty that may be taught whenever lessons are distasteful and dry, as some lessons are sure to be even under the most skilful teachers. It is good to have our lines fall in pleasant places, but whether they do or not, the "next thing" is to be done, faithfully and thoroughly. Dislike is a shameful excuse for failing to do one's assigned duty. Good soldiers are faithful, obedient, dependable, in every kind of weather, under all circumstances. Much, very much, of sound old-fashioned Puritan devotion to duty we need to preach, suggest, practice, and illustrate, if our schools and our nation are to fulfil their trust. The age is one of self-indulgence, and a deplorably soft pedagogy has exalted personal liking over sensible requirement. We have, however, an immense advantage over our Puritan ancestors in that we know the psychological laws which guarantee the rewards of adherence to duty. To teach these rewards does not lessen the strength of the first admonition. It illustrates a moral law that should be deep-graven in the consciousness of all people —*It pays to be good.*

---

[1] Kindergarten-trained children, upon entering the first grade, are sometimes very hard to control, having become used to constant amusement and attractive activities. The newer kindergarten methods aim to overcome this artificially aroused demand for entertainment.

[2] James, *Psychology* (1910 ed.), pp. 236 ff.; Pillsbury, *Attention*, chap. 20; Offner, *Mental Fatigue*, pp. 62–73.

Plain duty

GENERALIZATION AND SUMMARY

Preventive devices may be based upon any of the modes of school control. Those founded upon absolute authority utilize the position and authority of the school and teacher, the organization of the school system, and the instinctively recognized right of age and experience to direct the young. In using personal influence as a mode of control, a teacher appeals to the wish to please, makes his wishes known, and uses the resources of his personality in an endeavor to secure the development of his pupils. Personal strength is the great asset in the use of this mode, and the two elements making that personal strength are character and training. In controlling school conduct by the mode of wholesome repletion we endeavor to occupy the time of the pupil in a healthful way during school intermissions, during the time of the regular session after lessons are learned, and occasionally at home. Many occupations besides regular lessons help to keep children out of mischief and afford valuable training. But the great problem is to find the inherent interest in the essential work, and so make that truly the greatest thing in the school. Four causes of lack of interest are poor presentation, poor equipment, poor assignment, and lack of correlation. The laws of compensation are the teacher's great ally in securing earnest and sincere work.

CHAPTER XIII

DISCIPLINARY DEVICES (Continued)

CORRECTIVE DEVICES FOUNDED UPON THE MODE OF ABSOLUTE AUTHORITY

Prevention and correction

IN general, it may be said that all the devices of the disciplinarian are preventive devices, since their object is to prevent either a first offense or the repetition of a misdeed. All the means mentioned in the preceding chapter may be used to correct bad habits or tendencies, as well as to guard against their first appearance. The present chapter will discuss some specific means employed to correct abuses, where the offense is either serious in itself, or has become so fixed that it assumes the proportions of a serious problem. The discussion is necessarily very limited, only the more common and troublesome problems being selected as examples. Brief suggestions for corrective treatment are made in the enumeration of offenses in another chapter, and also in the chapter on Punishment.

Leaving the room

Perhaps no problem is more nearly universal than that given by pupils who leave the room during school hours too often and stay too long. This method has been found successful in a large city school, where careless management had brought about an abuse of the privilege:

Time spent out of the room is called "Lost Time," and pupils are expected to make it up. The justice and reasonableness of this is explained to the pupils by the teacher. A card is kept in a pocket by the door used by girls and boys respectively in entering or leaving the schoolroom from their cloakrooms. The card is printed at the top in this way:

The absence record

NAME	LEFT	RETURNED	MADE UP

The date is printed at the top of the card, a different card being used each day until the evil is reduced, when one card may serve for several days. The child enters his name and the exact time at which he left the room and returned to it. He may make up the time at recess or after school, or even let it go for several days and make up all he owes on one evening, when he wishes to stay and study; provided he does not let it go for more than one week at a time. When the time is made up the teacher checks off the charge. The cards are kept for reference, and sometimes give a valuable record. Small books may be used instead of cards. If a pupil does not keep his record honestly, he is not allowed to leave the room without explicit permission, and the teacher or a monitor keeps his record for him, which is a great disgrace.

Individual cases

The method just described is suited only to the correction of an habitual and widespread abuse of the privilege of leaving the room. Where the evil is confined to a few pupils in a room, there should be an inquiry as to the cause of the condition, with individual treatment for each offender. When a child leaves the room a great deal he may require medical attention, or he may find some attraction more strong than the schoolroom work. Where the evil is pronounced there is mischief afloat, and teachers should do some detective work to find what the counter-attraction is. Strict rules, well enforced, against loitering in cloakrooms, lavatories, and halls, will materially help.

Whispering

Whispering is an offense whose treatment must be graded according to the maturity of the offender and his motives. The methods which fix habits among small children, curing the evil by substitution, will not be successful among older children, whose schoolroom conduct is controlled by the will rather than by suggestion and imitation. The instances given in the following pages illustrate the difference in the methods used with little and with older children.

Since whispering among little children is caused usually by the excess of energy not absorbed in assigned work, the first remedy is to give the whisperer enough work to keep him busy, and the kind of work that will keep him interested. If he still continues to talk, his offense is due to a habit of aimless chatter or to a deliberate intention of annoying school and teacher. In either case isolation is the appropriate and effective remedy. Lonely people become silent; a persistent chatterer may be reduced to silence by solitary confinement. Giving the whisperer a seat at the back of the room or in a cloakroom or office (providing, of course, it be warm and light) for a sufficient length of time to make a real impression, is an effective method. Many teachers put such a child away from his fellows for a half-day or even a shorter period. Upon his return he may be a little more careful, but he cannot be cured. If made to sit by himself for a week, he would form a *habit* of silent attention to business that would, with care on the teacher's part and endeavor on his own, hold through the renewed temptation of close association. While isolated from other pupils the teacher must take especial pains to provide plenty of worth-while work, and adequate play with other children at recesses, or the last state of that pupil may be much worse than the first.

When everyone whispers

When whispering is rife among practically all the pupils of a room isolation is not a practicable remedy. A universal habit has the sanction of public opinion as an individual's habit has not, and is therefore more difficult to deal with. In the lower grades the play instinct may be utilized in the organization of some sort of competitive game, simultaneously with the forming of a prejudice against whispering as an evil thing. The introduction of an objective stimulant may be necessary. One teacher divided her school into two rival sides and promised a Saturday nutting party to the side which first achieved two successive days without whispering. To avoid the watching that usually destroys the good effect of such contests, she counted only such whispering as she herself saw, marking the offense on a score-card on the front board. The children became interested and worked hard. The teacher had hoped that the two sides would tie on the result, but one side easily won the picnic. The winners voted, however, to invite their rivals if they could equal their own feat by the end of the week, and when they failed by two points, invited them nevertheless, stipulating that the losers were to provide ice-cream for the crowd. This philanthropic *denouement* largely destroyed the good effects of the contest, by slurring the advantages of earnest effort. After the picnic the hardest part of the struggle came. With no immediate reward in view, there was a strong tendency to lapse into the old noisy, careless habits. An honor roll proved a weak incentive, the children asking for "something real." The teacher had to work hard to create an atmosphere of condemnation for whispering, of approval for attention and quiet, of pride in an orderly room. She had to punish by taking off a certain amount from the deportment grade for each offense. She had to go through the disciplinary process in all its phases, in fact, to cure the disease. But she had a partly established habit, a precedent of several very quiet days, to aid her, and decided that the contest had been a good way of starting the reform.

Among high school students

A new high school principal in an Indiana town found his assembly room demoralized with whispering. Taking the ground that whispering in a study room is an evil for which there is no reasonable excuse, and that it is a source of disturbance serious enough to warrant stopping the work which it interrupts, he entered upon a campaign to eradicate the habit. When he saw two people whispering, he left his desk at the front of the room, went down to the whisperers, and inquired the topic of their conversation. He insisted that he had a right to know what went on in the assembly room when he was in charge; he insisted that whispering was a serious offense, and should be treated seriously; he insisted that an offender should show him cause for doing such a thing. The result of finding himself the center of so serious a discussion was usually a promise on the part of the student to refrain from whispering in the future. A record of each case of whispering was kept in the principal's private discipline book, and after a given number of offenses the less tractable students found themselves in danger of suspension. There were few of these, however, for the determination of the principal to have a study room undisturbed by whispering, his refusal to take the flimsy excuses offered, and his frank emphasis upon what he considered the first requisite for a successful administration, put a stop to the evil of whispering within the year. The students who were threatened with suspension complained of the unreasonable standard set, but the Board decided that it was not unreasonable, and whispering practically ceased in that high school.

A reasonable standard

Many teachers insist that the old standard of absolutely no whispering is an artificial and unreasonable one. At church, or at a lecture or play, they say, no one would think of enforcing such a restriction. Quiet communication with regard to work, they insist, is far better than idleness, or than disturbing the teacher's work that wants may be supplied. To this thoughtful people may reply that church services, lectures, and plays would be far more successful if a no-whispering rule could be strictly enforced; and that the disturbance caused in such places by thoughtless and ill-bred persons would be far less if the school standard could be more universally accepted. However that may be, it is true that refraining from whispering is no longer regarded by teachers as an end, but merely as a means to better work and more mutual helpfulness; that artificial standards of behavior are constantly giving way to more natural and spontaneous ones. The enforcement of "Library Rules" in many high school and grammar rooms has solved the problem. That is, necessary whispering is permitted in the room if it pertains to work and disturbs no one. Longer conferences, if necessary, are held in an office or hall adjoining. These regulations, if explained clearly, appeal to the sense of justice and self-interest that older children usually have, and are therefore almost self-enforcing.

Wilful inattention to class exercises

The following formulation of successive steps in the correction of inattention or misbehavior in class, is taken from the minute directions to teachers of the Jena practice school.[1] It is given in its entirety for the sake of the careful grading which has been observed in the arrangement of the steps suggested.

1. Stop the instruction until perfect quiet is restored.
2. Tap upon the table.
3. Warning reproof, made generally to the class.
4. Statement of the penalty for continued inattention.

At this point the offenders have forfeited their right to remain formally unnamed, and should be subjected to the humiliation of public reproof. Therefore the next step is:

5. Speak the name of the wrong-doer, with a measured but severe reproof.

6. If still offending, the pupil is told to stand aside at the back of the room until the close of the class.

---

[1] Dr. Rein, *Aus dem Pädagogischen Universitäts-Seminar zu Jena*, drittes Heft, page 49.

7. Personal report to the principal.

American teachers would object to the rule that these steps are to be followed in rigid order, although their logical arrangement is obvious. Probably if personal reproof were more used as a last resort, and every means used to make it a disgrace, less would be required. In general, the use of these steps always in the same order is averse to the elasticity of American custom and American successful practice, while their observance in primary rooms would be a waste of time, with no psychological justification. But the inherent idea of the comparative severity of the seven méans of reproof listed will doubtless be suggestive to many teachers.

Wilful impudence

Where children are wilfully and deliberately impudent, the most effective means of reproof is to cut them off at once from the privilege of further talking. If they are persistent, the use of physical force is justifiable, and far preferable to the evil caused by permitting such an offense to go on. This is, let it be repeated, for wilful and conscious impudence, not the unconscious impudence caused by childish frankness or by simple ill-breeding. The impudence of defiance is one of the few offenses for which corporal punishment, immediate and public, is justifiable, sometimes extremely efficacious. Some teachers take the ground that such language constitutes a personal offense, for which resentment is personal and justifiable, as it would be if the offense occurred upon the street. It is undeniable that swift and summary justice probably makes the most effective reply so far as the offender is concerned, and teaches a lesson that delayed justice might never compass. Nevertheless the danger of becoming very angry, and of allowing the punishment to degenerate into an act of vengeance for an insult, gives to this course an element of risk to the influence and standing of the teacher, to say nothing of the possibility of injustice. The offender, it must be remembered, is a child, and is consequently not in the same position as a man would be who had committed the same offense. Neither, however, is a teacher bound to take from a child treatment which he would not take from a man; and any school board worth the name is bound to support the dignity of the teacher it employs to the extent of requiring respectful treatment for him on all occasions.

The complaint book

The Complaint Book has proved itself a very effective helper in schools where discipline is difficult. In each room is kept a large book something like a ledger, in which each pupil has an account. If a pupil offends, the teacher is required to make a record in writing of the date, nature of the misdeed, and the means of correction used. A fourth column is left blank, for use in case the offense is dealt with later by the principal, or further trouble comes of it. If the child's parent calls to inquire or complain, the complaint book gives specific written evidence of the nature of his misbehavior; while the teacher, knowing that she must report exactly the disposal of each case, is more likely to be careful in his government than he would be if no record were kept. The complaint book goes to the office and justifies the teacher when parents complain to the principal of teachers who "have a pick on" their children. The fourth column contains data of the final disposal of the case, often with a written promise from both pupil and parent that the offense will not be repeated. The whole system of written, systematic records tends to reduce the amount of bad order, which careless, unorganized, memory-supported management increases.

The pupil's record book

In connection with the complaint book, may be mentioned another which is of immense help in dealing wisely with children. This is the pupil's individual record book. It should be a loose-leaf book with a strong, light cover, preferably of paper. As used in German schools it contains an account of the pupil's family, age, and preparation, outward appearance, measurements, health, bearing, order in dress and care of school-things, intellectual development, amount of home-work required, favorite interests, psychological peculiarities, and special faults. It is begun in the first grade, and turned over to the child's next teacher upon promotion, who makes his entry in turn. If a child goes to another town, the book is to be sent to the superintendent there, or directly to the new teacher, who has in it a basis for intelligent work which her own efforts, perhaps, could not give her in a long time. Such a system, if followed carefully, would alone repay the time and trouble it costs in the saving of loss to children changing schools. When the child leaves school the record book shows in brief form his whole school career, and may prove valuable in many ways. Our best schools are rapidly taking up the matter of records, while in some they have been kept for a number of years.[1]

---

[1] Elson and Bachman, "School Records: Their Defects and Improvement." *Educational Review*, March, 1910, pp. 217 ff.

The school hierarchy

The complaint book is but one phase of a general system which provides for contingencies and has a prescribed (but not fixed and unchangeable) treatment for all ordinary delinquencies. The thoroughly organized school system is usually an efficient one, provided organization is not made an end in itself. A series of reports, a method of supervision, can be devised which will enable the superintendent of any system of schools, either rural or urban, to find out about any teacher or pupil in his system at a moment's notice, and treat any case that may arise intelligently and personally. Few cases in such a system will ever reach the superintendent, most of them being disposed of lower in the scale of the teaching ranks. No principal or superintendent can hope to do really good work without this organization. Many neglect it because it is hard to overcome the inertia of custom and the self-will of members of the system, and also because it requires much time and brains to formulate a good working plan. Good organization, however, is second in importance only to a good school spirit, and contributes much toward the latter.

Working through the office

The system, being organized, is for the benefit of the school. For instance, it is usually a good rule that complaints, visits from parents, or communications from teachers to parents, should go through the principal's office. Irate parents, bent on raising a row in the schoolroom, can by this means be headed off and made to state their grievances at a private conference, so saving the room in question from a demoralizing spectacle. Notes to parents need not be read unless the case is an important one, but the authority of the head of the school is a helpful reënforcement in all cases; while occasionally a teacher is saved from a mistake by this regulation. The impression of support and solidarity which is given by this close coöperation between principal and teachers does much to strengthen the authority and influence of the school.

RULES

In the past

It was an almost universal custom in the schools of fifty years ago, or even less, for the teacher to inaugurate a term of school by reading a set of rules, stating definitely what pupils might do, and what they were not allowed to do. Often the penalty for breach of the rules was added. There are some communities where this custom became so deeply entrenched that it is still followed, and there are some teachers whose methods follow those used with them when they were children, who still read such a challenge on the first day of school. The reading of rules, however, is not a part of the discipline of modern education. It is not done in the best schools, by the best teachers. It is not justifiable from the standpoint of either theory or practice, and where public opinion asks it of a teacher, public opinion should be both defied and educated until it is in accord with the tenets of good educational practice.

The objections to rules

The most important reason for the discontinuing of this old custom is that no set of rules, however detailed, can ever cover the ground of school behavior. A pupil of ingenious mind might contrive to keep within the letter of every law, and still be a disturbing element in the school; and another pupil might innocently break any number of rules, while conscientiously doing his best to learn and obey. Much wrong-doing is relative, moreover; it is right for one and wrong for another, right at one time and wrong at another, right under one set of circumstances, and a serious offense, worthy of punishment, under different conditions. A third objection, and an important one, is that rules offer a challenge to pupils to try their power with the teacher's. They suggest an antagonism which may not be inherent in children's hearts, but which soon becomes traditional in schools where opposition is taken for granted. The child who has not thought of breaking a rule becomes obsessed with a desire to see if the teacher really means what he says, when that teacher has made out a list of forbidden things. Far better to assume that pupils expect to do their best, want to help in making the school a success, and are not already planning mischief. Lastly, a teacher must be free to act according to the circumstances attending an offense when it occurs. He should never weaken his power by tying himself to a prescribed line of action, or place himself in the position of an idle threatener by calling actions offenses which, when they occur, may plainly be innocent of all guilt. On the other hand, pupils who have committed mischief which was not specifically named in the list of rules, can never excuse themselves by pleading that they were not forbidden to do that special thing. A teacher who uses no rules puts behavior on a basis of judgment and propriety from the beginning, and may demand judgment and propriety from his pupils consistently, in the decisions they are thus forced to make on matters of

Rules are a challenge to defiance

conduct. In a school without rules, the responsibility is placed with the children, while the power remains with the teacher.

Prevision This does not mean that the teacher has not carefully considered what he will do if certain events occur. If he thinks there is a liability to misbehavior, he must have ready a course of action, or several. But he should keep his own counsel, telling his plans only to the proper authorities, if to anyone.

A story James Whitcomb Riley tells a story of another Hoosier poet, Leo Harris, who was once his schoolmaster, which illustrates the good effects of honoring bad rules in the breach rather than in the observance. The school was in a rural district where old prejudices died hard, and Leo Harris was sorely tried between his real humanity and his desire to fulfil the demands of the community which he served.

Little Jim Riley had been bad, and was kept after school to be punished according to rule. When he and the master were left alone, however, Mr. Harris seemed to be in no haste to carry out the letter of the law. He closed the door and walked to his desk. Then he sent Jim to the window, and asked him if anyone were in sight.

"No," said Jim.

"Look again," said the master. "Are you sure?"

Jim looked again and reported the coast quite clear.

"Jim," said the master, "can you keep a secret?"

Jim assured the master that he could. His curiosity was aroused by these mysterious proceedings. Then, after another anxious inquiry and another reassurance, the master opened his great desk and cautiously drew forth a book. Opening it, he began to read. Little James Riley listened, fascinated. When it grew too dark to read, he begged the master to tell him what came next. But the master had another plan.

A conspiracy

"Jim, do you think you could take this book home without letting anyone know that you have it? And could you get it back here into my desk without letting anyone know that I loaned it to you?" the master inquired anxiously.

James thought he could, and he did. The deadly sin of novel-reading was held in much abhorrence in that community. He hid the precious book in the haymow, and read it through eagerly within a few days. Then, going early to school one morning, he slipped the forbidden book into Mr. Harris's desk. No one was the wiser save the master and James, but James had had a new vision of the romance of life and the riches that lie hidden between the pages of books; for the book was *Ivanhoe*. He was the everlasting friend of Leo Harris, for Leo Harris had had the courage and wisdom to defy the conventions of his world in an effort to reach the fundamental need of a boy.

A characteristic of some city schools

Some rule-ridden school systems are almost as deadening in their operation as were the conventions of the district in which the Indiana poet lived in his boyhood. It is the city school system now, rather than the country district, in which the teachers are bound fast to a set of hampering regulations. Provision for emergency, and iron-bound prescription for every possible situation, are two different things.

GENERALIZATION AND SUMMARY

Justice and good order

To withdraw privileges which are abused is a logical and just method of dealing with ordinary offenses. Mild means should be used first, and sterner ones with confirmed offenders. Thorough organization and strictly kept records help to secure good order. Set rules are a hindrance rather than a help in school management.

CHAPTER XIV

DISCIPLINARY DEVICES (Continued)

Corrective Devices Founded upon the Mode of Personal Influence

Judge Lindsey's work

No more illuminating and suggestive movement has taken place within the last few years than the establishment of Juvenile Courts all over the country, managed with a view to the special needs and peculiarities of children who are offenders against the law. Judge Lindsey of Denver, whose methods with boys have furnished schoolmen with much that is helpful in their own work, has won his unprecedented success mainly through a great sympathy, directness, and devotion to those for whom primarily the Juvenile Court is established — the boys and girls themselves. Using the same means of approach, and fired with the same keen sympathy and constant friendliness, schoolmen and schoolwomen have been for years winning boys and girls to paths of work and worth. The personal friendship of a grown person means a great deal to the average boy or girl; and the wishes of those we know and like count for much with all of us. Even the "gang," which is usually reinforced rowdyism at its worst, yields confidence and following to sincere friendly interest. The personal effort of one who feels sharply the responsibility of setting the feet of the young in the right direction, of redeeming lost time, of retrieving sad mistakes, must always be the most effective means of correcting the blunders and wilfulness of mistaken and headstrong boys and girls.

Reminders

The weaknesses of this method of correcting evil are its intermittent and temporary character, and the fact that it does not develop self-reliance. No friend, no matter how devoted, can always be at hand to guide and restrain, or to suggest the good resolution that has been made; while habit is always present, and temptation to an established custom seems always on hand. Any device which serves to remind the pupil of the effort which needs to be so frequently renewed, which strengthens resolution and restrains old habit, is worth using. A picture on the wall or a motto may serve to remind the child who is making an effort to change his ways, of the thing to be done or to be avoided. Even so homely a reminder as a piece of string tied to a grimy forefinger, has been known to save the day for new and good habits when old and bad ones were infinitely easier and more natural. The teacher who hopes to accomplish results, then, by the use of personal influence, does well to provide, if possible, some means of reminder for the times when he himself cannot be at hand, during the first critical days of change from bad habits to good. Such slight reminders, also, being less insistent than the actual presence of the friend and guide, effect a transition to the ultimate condition of complete self-direction. They serve to call attention to the change to be made, without usurping the place of the will in making it, as the presence of the teacher, with his strength of greater age, authority and personal liking, may do.

The parole system

Boys and girls who have offended to the point of endangering their position in the school, may often be won to a new care in their behavior which will outlast the necessity which gave it birth, by what is usually known as the parole system. A boy who is in danger of suspension is allowed to keep his place in his class, not in full and regular standing, but merely from day to day and at his teacher's discretion, during good behavior. Such a trial is not a right, for that is forfeited by disorderly conduct, but a special favor, granted to those who especially wish the privilege of trying again, of making another effort to deserve a place in the school life. The terms by which they retain their standing in their classes can be set by the teacher or principal; and as these terms may include the quality of work required, earnest effort and application may be assured for the time of the trial at least. If this time be extended until the new régime becomes habitual, and the rewards of effort have acquired a real value in the child's mind, the method may be said to have been successfully used. It is mentioned here among the methods involving the use of personal influence, because its success is so frequently dependent upon the skilful direction of a trusted principal or teacher. Its appeal to honor and to fear, the faith that clings still to the hope of "making good" after the limits of patience have been passed, and the careful watching lest all be lost at last, depend for their efficacy upon the deepest personal interest and the greatest wisdom in administration.

Motivating good conduct

Much can be done by personal talks to students, both privately and publicly, in motivating good conduct. The incentives to right conduct may be emphasized by imaging them, describing them, by any method which makes them real enough to function as motives. Calling attention to those who have made the requisite effort and are now enjoying the fruits of their labors is a vivid and effective way of emphasizing the incentives to good conduct. Sometimes a man or woman who has made for himself an honored place among men can be induced to tell his story in a simple and straightforward way, which without boasting or preaching drives home the lesson that is needed. This sort of talk is often at the risk of good results, however, since self-made men are notoriously fond of emphasizing their own part in their development, and are also inclined to be obvious in moral-driving; two characteristics which the sophisticated children of to-day regard with a contempt that is bound to destroy the effect of the most earnest talk.

The contagion of success

The presentation of ascertained facts regarding the material rewards of good conduct and earnest effort, which have been so often and variously compiled of late years, has had doubtless much good result; although statistics often fail to reach the pupils who need them most, unless illustrated with concrete examples of a nature to touch the imagination. The simple expedient of showing what has been done, what is being done daily, is the means which reaches most pupils most powerfully. For this reason the school which is located in a prosperous manufacturing, commercial, or agricultural region has a distinct advantage.

The sight of success is inspiriting; the atmosphere of success is contagious. The teacher who is surrounded with successful enterprise has but to put his pupils into circuit with it, that the current may vivify their efforts by kindling their imaginations and strengthening their wills. The teacher whose pupils live among the unsuccessful, whose parents are the discouraged poor or the smug, satisfied, and commonplace well-to-do, has a more difficult task. It is for him to bring to his pupils such men and women as he can induce to speak to them or be seen of them, who have won success in any praiseworthy degree. Much of this effort will of necessity seem lost, but some of it is bound to meet the need that always exists, that lies fallow until it is turned up by some kindly seed-sower, plowing at random, and scattering broadcast.

Reaching imagination and will

The vital connection between this stirring-up of ambition and the control of school conduct need hardly be pointed out to any teacher of experience and insight; for such a teacher knows that when once a worth-while goal is clearly seen ahead, earnest work and thought take care of conduct. The fundamental problem, then, is to arouse ambition, to set some goal that may seem both desirable and possible, to kindle the imagination with a vision of the attainable and fire the will to secure the ends sought. School routine ceases to be drudgery when it appears as the means for realizing a dear hope. A southern teacher, working in an Eastern mill town, found among her pupils a lazy, backward, but good-natured colored boy, happily content to have gained the fourth grade by his fourteenth year. His mother, a cook in the home of a wealthy family, had high hopes for her boy, whom she wished to educate for some distinguished position among his own people. The boy was satisfied with the three meals a day and warmth and comfort which his mother's work provided, and made no attempt at self-improvement.

The case of Sam

A whisk-broom and some cheese-cloth dusters were the beginning of Sam's reformation. The teacher persuaded him that no one could clean blackboards as he could, and that her self-respect depended upon the thoroughness with which he brushed her suit before she left the schoolhouse at night. When his training had somewhat progressed, she told him that she was training him to be a sleeping-car porter. She painted for him a glowing mind-picture of Sam, grown up, clad in a resplendent uniform of blue, with brass buttons. Sam responded most imperfectly and intermittently, of course, after the manner of his race, but still with an encouraging attempt at attaining the levels of accomplishment of those exalted personages whose power had come to appeal to his ambition. He made a sincere if unsuccessful attempt to learn his lessons, and was the teacher's right-hand man in all matters of schoolroom housekeeping and arrangement. When last heard from, he was coachman for a physician, and had in prospect an appointment as porter at the first vacancy.

The negative inducements

When positive inducements fail, there remain the negative ones, which are administered by that authority which must assert itself where children do not will rightly to control their own actions. The part of personal influence here may be an important one. Quietly to call attention to the inevitable punishment of wrongdoing, not as an imposition of authority, but as the working of a universal law which applies to all the world; effectively to appeal to a wayward child to bring his behavior into line with that of the law-abiding majority, to be one with progress and accomplishment, requires much tact and skill and warm, personal friendship. It is in this kindly seconding of other means of control, the investing of every detail of the schoolroom routine with the aura of friendliness and sincere interest, that personal influence shows most clearly and reaps greatest rewards.

The evaluation of conduct

The personal influence of the teacher may be used to induce pupils to consider and evaluate their own behavior. Arnold Tompkins,[1] many years ago, recommended the method of setting a delinquent the problem of formulating a reply to the question, "Why should I not whisper?" or "Why should I not fight?" The offending student should, said Dr. Tompkins, be excused from his regular work until he had answered this and the next question, which is, "What shall I do about my offense?" This throws the responsibility of conduct upon the pupil, and may be used to show him his duty of supporting the school and of submitting his will to the general good. The method is, of course, chiefly of use and value in the upper grades and with high-school students, and, as a rule, is not practicable with young children. Moreover, if the simpler and more economical means of habit-forming have been well utilized in the lower grades, there will be small need of this or other disciplinary devices in the higher grades. Nevertheless, in the hand of a firm and skilful teacher, this method is immensely valuable with the older, wilful offender, for it rationalizes the whole matter of conduct in a way to apply the principles of social behavior to many situations.

---

[1] *Philosophy of Teaching*, pp. 323–331.

With the more serious offenses

In dealing with the more serious offenses of lying, stealing, cheating, and some other sins which indicate a fundamental warp in character and training, the personal influence of a trusted teacher is all-powerful. To be trusted is the greatest compliment which can be paid a child. Teachers do well to create and to foster a pride in being considered honorable, trustworthy. When this has been forfeited, the fall from that grace should be felt to be a very great fall indeed. Some boys and girls never realize the value of a good name and the confidence of their fellows, until its loss is brought home to them sharply after some offense. Every means that is used to emphasize the disgrace that has befallen the offender emphasizes also the desirability of good standing; but care must be taken to stop short of the impression that the disgrace is an irretrievable one, lest despair of reinstatement make the problem a hopeless one. The teacher must make it plain that his trust is withdrawn, and that it can be renewed only gradually, as, step by step, the offender proves his worthiness. In this process, the teacher stands as the representative of all right-thinking people, and should make this plain to the pupil, lest the ultimate value of the teacher's attitude be lost. This is especially necessary because pupils who offend in such respects usually do so because of a lack of training in ethical prejudices; the attitude of right-thinking people has not been the typical attitude of their environment.

The goal of reinstatement in the trust of teacher, pupils, and all the world, needs clearly to be set and constantly to be recalled; and many friendly inquiries and reminders help in the hard process of reformation.

Outside of school

While recognizing the fact that many of their problems have their origin in conditions outside the schoolroom, many teachers are unwilling to assume the needful responsibility of using their personal influence in any decided way to combat the evils they see. Many more who would be willing to do this if it were within their power, are so overburdened with the routine duties of their positions that to engage in further efforts is a physical impossibility. Still others, seeing the need, are distrustful of their own ability to work in a larger field than that for which they have received their training; or find it impossible to line up the support which the movement must have to be successful. The fundamental need in this respect, as in others, is of course the need of leaders with the requisite ability and enthusiastic faith. Many a quiet schoolma'am, engaging through sheer despair of finding a better leader, in some project of reform the necessity for which has lain heavily upon her soul, wakes up to find herself a successful agent in effecting untold good. Teachers must use their personal influence outside the schoolroom as well as in it. The unofficial position of a teacher outside his own domain is often merely nominal; in most American communities the people rightly look upon a teacher as a public personage wherever he may be. The teacher who takes an active interest in all that pertains to the welfare of his town or community, who fearlessly denounces evil when occasion calls for such denunciation, whose standards of personal and public honor are high, whose taste sanctions nothing but that which is healthful and helpful in amusements and commodities, is not only taking the place which his position warrants, but is adding to the strength of the school system a hundred bulwarks of unseen influence. It is the duty of a school superintendent to know as much as he can of the picture-shows and plays which school-children attend, the literature sold to them on newstands, the advertisements they read in the local papers, and the employment offered to them. Individual teachers can furnish much of this information to the superintendent, and by coöperation many evil influences may be removed or mitigated. Parents and organizations will often coöperate if their attention be called to the needs of the situation. As this work usually devolves especially upon the superintendent, it will be treated more fully in the chapter on Supervision; but every teacher should bear his share in the exercise of that personal influence which bears indirectly, as well as that which functions directly, upon the order and spirit of his school.

Attacking outside enemies

SUMMARY

Personal influence, actuated by sympathy and friendship, sees that effort at reform is aided by reminders and restraint until habit and will are strong enough to assume the responsibility of conduct. It puts offenders upon their honor in the use of the parole, motivates the efforts at reform, pointing out both positive and negative incentives, and leads children to evaluate their own conduct and to understand the necessity of social attitudes. It guides those who have forfeited self-respect and the confidence of others in regaining what they have lost; and aims to effect wholesome changes in social ideals which are inadequate, and social customs which are degrading to character.

DISCIPLINARY DEVICES FOUNDED UPON THE APPEAL TO PERSONAL INTEREST

These devices are among the oldest in use, because the mode has been used since schools began. Its most common form is prize-giving in all its shapes and ramifications. This was formerly considered a commendable custom, one of the enlightened and inspirational methods of securing good work — and doubtless it was, when compared with flogging. Current educational opinion is against it, however, as a means of doubtful value. English schools seem still to be provided with a full set of prizes for everything in the curriculum, so that one wonders if, a prize being inadvertently omitted for a single subject, any special effort is made to excel in that one. American schools are rarely afflicted with prize-giving friends, the custom being restricted almost entirely to private schools patterned more or less after European models. But while formal prize-giving is not common in our schools, the offering of rewards of one kind or another is almost universal, and has a strong bearing upon the order and spirit of the school.

A contrast

Prize-giving

The question of prize-giving has long been a favorite point of dispute. Out of all the discussion that has gathered about it, the conclusion of the best educators seems to be that it is, on the whole, a low incentive to offer to a child, and one not to be used if a higher one will function. But, if no other inducement is effective, it is better to offer the child a prize than to permit him to fail of accomplishment. Once established, conformity to requirement becomes easier and tends to become a habit, so that the incentive may be withdrawn or be replaced by a better one. To reach a desirable end by any means that is not directly dishonorable, is better than not to realize the end at all.[1]

Incentives Following the classification already made, the incentives that may be offered to children are:

1. The negative one of escaping punishment or disgrace.
2. The gratification of interests.
3. Personal gain.
4. The pleasing or service of one particular friend or group of friends (another form of self-pleasing).
5. The pleasing or service of a social group.

Dr. Bagley has analyzed the positive incentives as, (1) those which appeal to the instinct of emulation, (2) those appealing to the social instincts, and (3) ideals. Ideals may be either personal or social in nature; that is, they may look toward the future good of the individual or of the school — or, perhaps, of some even larger group, and in the case of older pupils of all society. The personal gains which are held out as incentives fall into four classes — material possessions, personal preëminence, privileges and immunities intrinsically desirable, and the building up of ability and high character. Among the material possessions which are offered as prizes are money, medals of intrinsic value, books, pictures, — and, in a remoter sense, the higher earning capacity which is so constantly held before High School students as an inducement to remain in school. These material rewards are not evil in themselves, but the emphasis placed upon them tends to increase the materialism of the day, which measures all things by a money standard.

---

[1] "Education must manifestly begin with incentives of the lower orders and pass to those of the higher orders; but, even under the most favorable conditions, this transition will be but gradual." Bagley, *Classroom Management*, page 169.

See the discussion of prize-giving in Sully's *Teacher's Handbook of Psychology*, pp. 453–60, 566–7.

Preëminence

Personal preëminence, which is given by the conferring of honors, the granting of medals and prizes and high grades, or places on debating teams and the positions of valedictorian and salutatorian on the commencement program, is possible usually to only a few members of the class, and then because of inborn gifts rather than praiseworthy effort. Most educators condemn it as an incentive, since manifestly it affects only a small proportion of the students. In the lower grades this singling out of the best for special honor is done by giving badges or buttons of honor, writing the name on honor rolls, placing little flags on desks, or sending special notes of commendation or congratulation to parents. A very effective method for small children is the Star List, which is a large card containing the names of all in the class, with space after each name for pasting on little gilt or silver or brightly colored stars, given for each lesson well learned. Children count their stars eagerly, and usually develop a healthy sort of rivalry, for all have a chance to earn at least a few stars.

Grades

The grading system is liable to degenerate into a competitive device unless well administered. The custom of ranking pupils in the order of their relative average grades, not so common now as formerly, was a bad practice because it gave some pupils a seemingly hopeless inferiority. The highest grades go inevitably to those naturally gifted with quick brains and superior advantages. The truer conception of the school community, in which every child may excel in some thing, be it merely the neatness with which he attends to the blackboards or the success with which he makes the geraniums bloom, has no expression in a ranked grading system, which cannot take account of all the activities of the school. It is a good rule to follow, that grades should be given only to the extent and for the purpose of showing children how they stand in their studies, and that with regard to a fixed standard of excellence, not relatively to each other.

Privileges

Privileges and immunities have a certain logical basis, since the excellence of pupils breeds a confidence that they will use rightly the special opportunities given them. In practice, however, this supposition does not always hold good. In one school, for instance, the pupils who averaged 90 per cent in their studies were given the freedom of the building — the right to go where they pleased without special permission. The privilege had to be taken away from them because they were soon found to be abusing it by meeting in the halls to gossip and play.

Holidays as rewards

The "privilege" of a monthly half-holiday for regularity of attendance and excellence of work is used in some schools, and usually gives a great appearance of success, the children working like well-regulated beavers for the extra half-day of freedom. One is inclined to wonder if the teachers who offer a half-day of release from their control have a sense of humor; and if so, why they do not apply it to the spectacle of setting up this release from school as a reward for good work in school. The school and the prison, surely, are not to be considered parallel institutions, to be managed by similar methods. A school exercise of a different sort, such as a trip to a park or museum, or to the woods, or to a factory or a farm, is sometimes offered as a reward to the pupils who have done well. But to put school work upon such a basis is liable to give it the wrong connotation for the pupils, as well as for parents, too many of whom regard school as an ingenious device for keeping young people within doors.

Freedom from examinations

The most common immunity is that from examination, granted to pupils who reach a certain grade in their daily recitations. This custom springs from the old, mistaken conception of the examination as an inquisition on the part of the teacher, a sort of belligerent challenge to the pupil to prove that he is capable of going on with the work. The true idea of examinations is that they are for the good of the pupil rather than for the teacher. They are primarily a means of showing the pupil where he stands. The teacher wants to know this only that he may be more helpful, but the pupil's interest is more fundamental, for his own progress depends largely upon the foundation already laid. With older pupils examinations should be welcome opportunities to review, organize, and test. In every grade where they have a place at all, examinations should be considered part of the regular work, and therefore should be done by all.

Self-improvement

Last, and by far most important of the forms of self-interest which may function to control and improve conduct, is the incentive of self-improvement. Self-improvement has two phases, the training of power to do, and the training of power to be; the gaining of ability and skill, and the development of nobility of character. The first of these two is a matter of intellect, the second of emotion, guided by ideals; and both must be vitalized by the will. Teachers should begin to urge the two-fold self-culture from the child's first entrance into school life. Unless allowed to degenerate into preachiness or nagging, children welcome this personal note in the teacher's anxiety for their advancement, and respond to it eagerly and with gratitude. It recognizes the most immediate end of education for them, which is their improvement, their gain in power to get what they want and to be what they admire.

Acquisitiveness

The power to win what seems desirable is a more elementary and natural incentive than the power to realize an ideal in character. It is a ready-made, instinctive incentive. Teachers use it constantly. They urge pupils to write neatly, that they may not be prevented from obtaining a good position by poor penmanship. They urge them to speak correctly that they may be able to gain their ends by persuasion. They suggest that a good mathematician will probably become a good business man, and that nature-study leads to profitable agriculture. Music and manners and a well-stored mind are helpful in social life; industry and neatness, everywhere. It is right to urge these incentives, for they illustrate a great truth that cannot be over-emphasized, namely, that all good things must be paid for, earned, compensated for, soon or late. That effort does bring reward, even when the immediate object is not obtained, is the belief that takes form under these constant suggestions.

Character-development

The second part of the child's development should parallel the first. He is unconsciously forming character in every adjustment to the world about him, but definiteness and force are gained by sometimes making the process conscious. There is no harm, for instance, in asking the children, after telling them the story of the boy Lincoln reading by the light of the winter fire, what they think of such a habit, what Lincoln gained by it, and if they would have done the same thing. Children need to be encouraged to formulate their ideals by writing or describing orally their ideal man and woman, boy and girl. They are didactic creatures, delighting in the clear statement of truths that have grown trite to their elders. Consequently they revel in the opportunity to describe their ideal characters, and produce documents that are invaluable to their teachers. One very successful teacher always gives this exercise at the beginning of each new school year, to enable her to understand the children given into her care. If she finds certain ideals or standards lacking, she tells her classes stories of men or women whose lives illustrate the special quality that needs emphasis. At the end of the year the exercise is repeated, and the comparison of the two papers gives an index to character-growth, or at least to the formation of ideals, that has taken place during the year. A regular program of ethical instruction is used in this school, it should be added, beside the hero-stories.

Ernst and his temper

Sometimes self-revelation gives a startling impetus to endeavor. An incident which happened in a Cincinnati school illustrates the influence which wise guidance and treatment may have in securing good conduct from motives of proper self-interest. A boy who had the misfortune to be possessed of an ungovernable temper was kept after school to finish some work which he had willfully neglected during the regular session. Sitting at his desk, he suddenly flung papers, books and pencils in all directions and cried out, "I can't stay, I tell you! I have to go to the dentist's!"

His teacher knew that the engagement at the dentist's was for the next afternoon. Nevertheless, she said, looking steadily at the boy, "Ernst, you are excused." Astonished and somewhat frightened at his own outburst, he left. The next morning he came in with his line, but was met at the door by the teacher, who directed him with a gesture to stand aside until she could speak to him. When the other children had passed in, she turned to Ernst standing in the corridor, and looked at him steadily. The boy flushed quickly, remembering the scene of the night before; then said, "I'm not going to act like that again."

"But I'm *afraid* to have you in the school," said his teacher. "You were insane yesterday. You were blind with fury, and might in another moment have maimed or even killed some one; you might do another pupil a serious injury. A schoolroom is no place for people who may at any time lose their senses with anger. Such people, I fear, belong in another kind of institution."

The boy began to realize the seriousness of his offense, in its ultimate as well as its immediate effects. "Oh, if you'll only let me come back, I'll never do that again," he said. "Please try me. I'll try to master my temper if you'll just let me try."

The trial was, of course, allowed, and Ernst has justified it by gaining a steady control over himself.

SUMMARY

Incentives functioning in discipline

Prize-giving is an incentive of doubtful merit, not to be used if others appealing to higher motives will function. To develop high character and great power, and to serve others well, are incentives for effort that should be encouraged. The relative ranking of the students of a class gains no good end. Examinations are not a punishment, but an occasion for organization and test, of which all students should avail themselves; and holidays as rewards for good conduct are scarcely logical. Self-improvement, which is the highest form of self-seeking, has two phases, the development of character and the development of ability. Teachers should test the ideals of their pupils at intervals, to ascertain in what direction they need especial help and guidance.

CHAPTER XV

DISCIPLINARY DEVICES (Continued)

DEVICES FOUNDED UPON THE MODE OF CONSCIOUS SOCIAL APPEAL

Loyalty to class or room

THOSE who object to the deliberate development of class or school spirit overlook the fact that group-loyalty is a necessary step toward a still more liberal social loyalty. From himself to his family, to his own group of playmates, to the class, school, and team to which he belongs, to his town, his state, his country, is extended the ever-widening coalition of interest of the developing child; and if the process be not arrested, it will go until the mature man or woman feels himself in fraternal relations with all people of all countries. In the school, then, the era of class and school loyalty has a distinct and rightful place, and as an aid to good order and good spirits, if wisely guided and managed, it is very important. Even rivalry, if it be group-rivalry and not personal rivalry, may be used for good.

It is as Utopian a dream to eliminate rivalry from a wide-awake school as to eliminate it from life outside the school; and if it were to be done away with we should lose one of the most effective means of teaching courtesy, self-control, consideration, and justice. The selfishness, brutality, and vindictiveness sometimes charged to rivalry are results of the neglect to teach the customs and standards of true sportsmanship, the principles that govern well-conducted contests of any kind, the tenets of fair play. There will always be rivalry in the world while the world continues to progress, and to attempt to conduct a school entirely free from this natural, instinctive feature is to attempt a mawkish travesty on human nature. The problem is not one of eliminating a fundamental element in conduct, but of controlling it for good ends, of using it in the best way.

The extension of loyalty

The explanation of the evil effects of class and school loyalty lies in the fact that the pupils do not see their room or class as a part of an organic whole, but merely as the isolated rival of one other organization. If the place of the unit concerned, in the whole fabric of the school system, be made conscious to the pupils, and the end of the effort be to improve that whole system through a contribution which all hope may be the best and greatest of any made, the socializing influence will be far greater than the individualizing influence. The immediate aim of making the best showing becomes secondary to the ultimate aim of improving the big unit, of pride in the good accomplished for all. The process of improving conditions in a school badly demoralized by an almost universal habit of tardiness, may be taken as an example. The new principal who found things in bad shape and resolved to effect a reformation, instituted a contest between the different rooms with the aim of establishing a new record and a new set of habits with regard to punctuality. A pennant was hung outside each room, which was unfurled if there had been no

The pennant method

tardiness that day, but rolled up if one person had spoiled the record. This was a direct appeal to room-loyalty, and although no word of beating the record of other rooms was said by teachers or principal, the pupils soon began to point to the full-flung pennants of their own rooms with much pride, and to boast of belonging to a grade which had a clear record. The ideal of a whole school with a good record, however, was kept before the pupils. Big brothers and sisters in the upper grades were urged to help the younger members of their families to reach school on time; and the teachers saw to it that all jeering and baiting of the unfortunates who "spoiled the record" was nipped in the bud. The effect of the effort as a whole was to develop, besides the primary object of greater punctuality, a feeling of solidarity in the whole school, of loyalty to classes and rooms and to the school at large; a feeling which the editor of the local paper still further generalized by an editorial in which he mentioned the school record as a matter for town pride.

Class or school character

The individuality of school units is a point that may be skilfully emphasized in such a way as to be of material help in improving conditions. In some New York schools, for example, the classes are named after some great man whose character or deeds the class may wish to honor or to imitate. A feeling of loyalty to a common standard grows out of the constant emphasis upon the character of the class hero. Pride in an untarnished class record, not only as to punctuality, but touching the more important virtues of truth, honesty, industry, and obedience, will sometimes hold the individual pupil to personal integrity until the standard, upheld at first through no intrinsic regard for right, becomes by habit a part of his personal creed and custom. Wherever and however the desirability of ethical action can be emphasized, in whatever way the interest of others may become more important than the interest of self, there good has been done.

The agent of unification

Of late years the ideal of social motive has been so freely associated with the ideal of self-activity and of self-government, that in the minds of many it is identical. These people think it impossible for children to act for the good of all without to some extent fixing the conditions under which they shall live, and actively participating in the management of their own affairs. An analysis of the different forms of pure or partial pupil-government has been given in the chapter on the Mode of Social Appeal. In this place we wish to consider the value of such methods as devices for the improving of the order of the school. They have been used with marked success in a number of instances, and this success has led many to wonder if the old methods are not fundamentally wrong. A close study of the elements in the success of these plans where they have justified their realization, however, leads one to the conclusion that they are due in every case to the dominating personality of a strong leader, rather than to the intrinsic merits of the system. Where teachers are not actively in sympathy with the experiment, it fails.[1] The success attained is a proof that a leader of magnetic power can accomplish remarkable results by the use of methods that under ordinary circumstances are doomed to sure failure. It is not claimed that these systems have not done great good; but it is highly probable that the energy used to bring about the results attained, if used in methods more simple and more suited to the ends to be gained, would have accomplished even more, without setting the dangerous example of a success in which the most potent element is denied and covered up.

---

[1] See the very judicious summary of these plans by Walter L. Philips, in *Education* for May, 1902; and especially, for this point, page 547.

Pupil-government is not self-government

In the first place, it is wise to recognize a certain looseness of terminology which has largely escaped notice.[1] Such systems are called self-government systems, whereas they really furnish so elaborate a scheme of pupil-government that, between the comprehensive legislation and the tendency of eager youth to find something to do, they give the individual pupils very little chance to govern themselves. They are mutual-government schemes, but afford few opportunities for self-government. The pupils are put upon their honor to report misdeeds that come to their notice, and unless they are deterred by motives of friendship, fear, or indolence, they do so. The whole scheme is but a thoroughly-extended monitorial system.[2] The principle upon which it is founded is a sound one, in that it is the duty of all to uphold the integrity of the system of government under which they live. But to go one step farther, and make all responsible for that integrity, not upon occasion and at the request of the authorities, but constantly, in the teacher's place, is to confuse the positions of teacher and pupil and to give to children a work for which they are not yet fitted. The systems have the disadvantages of the older monitorial schemes. Their advocates make much, for instance, of the fact that responsibility is shifted from the teacher to the pupils. But is not the teacher the person in whom the public reposes responsibility for the school? Has he not been prepared and educated for that very purpose? Is he not, though never so poorly prepared, better trained to assume responsibility than his charges? Why should the teacher wish, or even be willing to shift his responsibility? And can he do so, even if he wishes? The teacher under such a system may hold the pupils responsible for good order on the playground, and forego all supervision during recesses. But if one boy in a fit of anger attack another and injure his eye, the parents of the second boy will not exonerate the teacher from blame because the boys are supposed to be self-governing. Law and public opinion hold one person responsible for the school — the teacher. In a last analysis, then, the system will not hold; and are the results worth the pretense?

---

[1] But see Perry, *Management of a City School*, page 286.

[2] One must, however, distinguish two classes of monitors, or rather two classes of duties assigned to them. The monitor whose work it is to watch other pupils and report infractions of rules, becomes often a self-satisfied prig or a tale-bearing spy. The monitor who attends to various school duties — the school-officers, as the Germans call them — learn habits of responsible care and industry, and have a proprietary pride in the neatness and order of their rooms as a result of their appointment or election.

Placing responsibility

Moreover, childhood is the period during which human beings are learning to control themselves, and self-control should, by every law of fitness, precede the exercise of authority over others. The school democracy, in fact, commits the essential fallacy of

Is it wise to force maturity?

all pure democracies — it assumes an equality which does not exist. There are two qualifications, for instance, which we demand shall be fulfilled by those who wish a voice in our nation's government. Simply to vote requires that the age of 21 shall have been reached; that is, the mere exercise of judgment demands a certain degree of maturity. If a man wish to hold office, good citizenship demands that he shall have shown ability in some way. He should be a good business man, or a successful practitioner if in a profession. One other claim to consideration counts for a great deal, namely length and faithfulness of public service. Now children have none of these requisites for authority in a qualifying degree, and many think that people who have neither maturity, proved ability, nor experience had better learn to work under direction than to try to rule.

Elasticity of the older method

Lastly, by its emphasis upon statutes and officers, school-cities and school-states tend actually to interfere with self-government, the ideal to be attained.[1] It is possible for a teacher to resign his control over a child, to allow him to pass from direction by others to self-direction, at any time when he is ready for that point in his development. Under the control of teachers, school government retains an elasticity which makes individual treatment easy. When under the direction of children, however, who work in accordance with a fixed set of rules, it is impossible to suspend judgment, to except wisely, to take into consideration the action of forces which children do not yet understand — in short, to modify the treatment in each case as it should be. Teachers of mature and well-trained powers find it a difficult task to be wise and just in their judgments, which is perhaps one reason for the opposition of many of the older teachers to the new methods of self-government; they can not conceive of children who are capable of performing the task ably.

---

[1] "Rewards and punishments have a pedagogical value, therefore, only when, instead of outwardly buying or forcing the child's obedience, they teach him an actual consciousness of the law, and develop a free subjection to it." — Baur.

Good points

The principle of coöperation, however, and of responsibility on the part of pupils for their own behavior and to a certain extent for their neighbors', is so sound that some teachers think it wise to base their scheme of government upon it. The secondary object of such organizations, the teaching of civics, may be gained, it is true, by other means than the harnessing of the whole school routine to that end;[1] nevertheless there has never been devised so good a scheme for giving constant practice and illustration of the means of popular government. The utilization of the surplus energy of pupils in the absorbing machinery of school administration is an additional incentive of great appeal, especially in crowded city schools. The following cautions are suggested to those who think of adopting a pupil-government plan:

Facts to remember

1. Pupils need a thorough foundation of acknowledged ideals of honesty, industry, and devotion to duty if they are to be trusted to carry on such a scheme after the novelty has worn off.

---

[1] Introducing children dramatically to the machinery of government will not place old heads on young shoulders. — Strayer, *Brief Course in the Teaching Process*, page 160.

2. The teacher must remain always the ultimately responsible person.

3. The plan of government must not be too elaborate for the pupils who are to use it.

4. Very able teachers are required to make such a scheme a success. Where under ordinary conditions a teacher uses his authority frankly and quickly, under such a régime he must use it indirectly, and often with annoying delay. To overcome these disadvantages requires a person of much ingenuity, tact, and force of character.

5. Eternal vigilance and untiring labor are necessary to keep out evils. The plan involves more work — not less — than direct government by teachers.

The service-ideal

Many of the features of the school city and the school state can be used as disciplinary devices with the best results. The cleaning squad, the pianist or bugler, the pennant committee, the girl who waters the plants, and the boy who fills the waterbucket, all are officers in a school service just as real as if it called itself by some other name than just what it is. A great teacher is he who can build up in the minds of his pupils a real pride in being of service. If children ask, "What did he do for the world?" of any man whose name they hear, something has been accomplished. Let the fine motto, "I serve," hang in an honored place on the wall, and let the spirit of unity and solidarity be fostered in every way possible. Daily stories of great men and women, in which heroism, devotion to good causes, unselfishness, and breadth of sympathy are extolled in a concrete way, do wonders in building up the attitude of service-giving. If enough variety in the forms of service described is given to these hero-stories, some one of them will probably reach even the most indifferent. This development of the *spirit* of service, of the actual feeling of brotherhood and of community of interest between all the pupils of the school, is both the condition and the hoped-for outcome of all pupil-government plans.

THE MORNING EXERCISE AS A HELP TO SCHOOL ORDER

Purposes of morning exercises

The very essence and culmination of all conscious effort to serve the whole body of the school, lies in the kind of morning exercises which really fulfils its purposes.[1] These purposes include the unification of the school in its activities and interests, the motivation of school work by means of socializing incentives, the development of expression, appreciation, organizing ability and ideals, and the opportunity to give to the children a vision of their relation to the greater world-life that lies outside the schoolroom. Morning exercises that even very imperfectly realize these purposes become a source of such uplift to the school, of such a change in its spirit, as can but react in the improvement of order and the elimination of evil.

Fallacious objections

Before considering the forms which morning exercises may take, it will be well to examine two stock objections to them and show how misleading and ill-founded they are. These two objections are that morning exercises, especially when they depart from the most brief and formal routine, detract from the time and attention that should be devoted to study; and that the effect upon children of appearing publicly is to develop self-consciousness, affectation, and conceit. The same objections are urged, of course, with respect to the more elaborate entertainments given by young people — plays, concerts, pageants; and the same answer may be made. If the motive of contributing to the pleasure and enlightenment of others be kept constantly in the foreground, and the child's conception of his message be made as vivid and as impressive as it should be, there will be no room or attention left for self in his preparation or delivery of it. His self-respect will increase with his proved power to entertain and instruct other people, and with his ability to think on his feet or speak without embarrassment. But his idea of his own relative importance is bound to shrink as he grows in the wisdom that comes from a broadened view and from a new wealth of knowledge. Even though some temporary exaltation result from his performance, it is more than balanced by the real power which a successful appearance gives. "Children accustomed from childhood to an audience learn to think and speak upon their feet so people can hear and understand. It is the habit of meeting an audience *every day from the beginning* that tells, that gives power, skill, and self-possession. The majority of children trained in this way never experience the agony of self-consciousness that an audience means

---

[1] The Francis W. Parker School of Chicago has developed the morning exercise as variously and successfully as any school. The *Year Book* for 1913 is devoted to an account of this feature of the school; it is packed with helpful suggestions. Much of the material of the following paragraphs is taken more or less directly from this little book. (Press of Francis W. Parker School, 330 Webster ave., Chicago. 35 cents.)

Self-consciousness and service

to those educated to self-repression instead of self-expression." It is to be remembered that in morning exercises every pupil in turn is to be given a chance to contribute, so that appearance gives practice without conferring any especial distinction. Distinction is the prize of unusual talent or application, and will inevitably follow an especially fine contribution, as it should.

Special exercises growing from regular school work

With regard to the first objection, its validity depends entirely upon the nature of the exercises given and the skill with which they are correlated with the regular work of the school. They should grow out of daily lessons, or spring from a spontaneous interest in some absorbing question of the day. "They are usually the culmination of some line of study. The subject is sometimes science, the telling or illustrating of observations of nature; the story of some visit to the farm, the art gallery, or workshop; history, current events; the massing of the literature and music of some special subject or special day; the telling of stories that delight the children's hearts; or the discussion of some problem of vital significance in the community-life of the school. Therefore the exercises, instead of interfering with the school work, emphasize, reinforce and vitalize it; give it purpose and form and furnish the best test of the children's growth and power to think and of their skill in expression."[1]

The exercises used in the Francis Parker School include readings, plays, concerts, story-telling exercises, illustrated history-topics, demonstrations of the arts, and religious services. An exercise on Historical

---

[1] *The Morning Exercise as a Socializing Influence*, page 15.

Varieties and sources

Methods in Arithmetic, one on the Great Ice Sheet, one on Cicero, one on types of bridges, one on different kinds of artificial illumination — to select a few at random — show how all the activities of the school contribute to the morning exercise. The first grade gives an exercise on play-houses and primitive homes, the high school tells about the chemistry of water. The entire school participates in a series of exercises on pottery, in which Indian, Egyptian, and Japanese scenes are reproduced in tableaux for which one rehearsal was held, and for which the children made the simple scenery. In other schools the same plan has been followed, the exercises being suggested by both teachers and pupils, who inferred from their own interest in what they were doing that others would be interested too. Dramatization of stories studied in literature classes, song-cycles, talks about vacation experiences or accounts of travel, explanations of new scientific discoveries and reviews of new books — all these things may be presented to a rapt audience if only the desire for self-expression spring from a sufficiently vivid appreciation of some new experience or some old hobby. Such morning exercises can spring only from a quality of mental wide-awakeness, which is in its turn stimulated by the expression given.

The question of devotions

A most unfortunate condition which prevents the morning exercise in public schools from fulfilling its final degree of helpfulness, is the impossibility in many localities of including devotional exercises. The influence of simple and sincere religious services, of the Bible lesson and prayer and of hymns of praise, when led by those who themselves feel the inspiration they afford, is so great that our schools can ill afford to forego it. Wherever the laws permit such devotional services, and they can be held without arousing a degree of objection which would defeat their purpose, they should form part of the morning exercise. The possibility of utilizing the potent force of religious sentiment, unhampered by law or the charge of unduly pushing denominational views, is one of the distinct advantages possessed by the private school. In lieu of this, and as the next best thing, fine stories of heroic deeds, the best that literature and art can give to stir the soul and elevate the taste, every legitimate appeal to the higher emotions and the idealizing power of youth, will serve to make life so earnest, rich, and full of wholesome joy that petty meanness and silly mischief are crowded out.

Everybody's hour

The unifying influence of the morning exercise depends largely upon completeness of participation — upon the thoroughness with which each member of the school is drawn into the circle. The school that has an assembly room large enough to accommodate all the grades and the high school is fortunate in this respect, for there a friendly fellowship may spring from the frequent and helpful association. Such a school will not suffer from that absurd and harmful feeling of superiority and aloofness which grows up among high school and upper grade pupils who are habitually separated from their small brothers and sisters. It is probable that such association, by visualizing the shadowy realm of learning's higher haunts, has a helpful influence in reducing retardation. The small urchin who sees the high school rooms, the high school students (not swaggering past him on the walk, but sitting at desks as he does, and singing or reciting as he does, only better) may acquire the ambition to be a high school boy too. The ideal of the school is that of a friendly group, working together in harmony for common ends; and yet there are many school children who never see the rooms in which older children meet, to say nothing of gaining a conception of the pleasures that lie beyond them if they persevere. In morning exercises planned to show the results of study, this end of holding out incentives for effort, among others, may be realized. Older children delight in the performances of their younger schoolmates, and their appreciation is golden for the admiring little people.

Each room in a building, each child in each room, may do something during the year, if only the simplest of mechanical services, toward the success of the daily meeting. All the best of individual gain, all the happy outcomes of common effort, may be brought to this social center and there proudly, gladly, be offered to the whole body of the school. And only as the spirit of loving and eager giving dominates the activities of this period, will it become the power for good that it may be.

Avoiding the haphazard

A few practical suggestions and cautions for the conduct of these exercises may be helpful. They must, first of all, be planned definitely and carefully, programmed as clearly as any class exercise, and purposefully arranged.

The mechanical details of marching, placing, order, ventilation, signals, distribution of papers or books, and the courteous formalities that must mark the assembling of large bodies, should be carefully arranged by all the teachers in council.

Children who are too shy, or not sufficiently talented to appear in prominent ways, should be assigned duties which they can perform, so that all may feel their responsibility. Ushering, arranging shades and opening windows, the duties of doorkeepers and stage managers, passing songbooks or papers, are little offices that add to the comfort and pleasure of such occasions, and may be performed by the shy and backward pupils who can not sing or play or speak.

Marching

Marching to and from the room facilitates the gathering and dispersal of pupils. Do not try to achieve military precision, but aim to develop the feeling for balance and rhythm and erect, graceful, elastic carriage, which normal children have. On special occasions, as at Christmas and Easter services, the marching may be omitted, to add quiet to the elements that create a different atmosphere. In this, as in all exercises, only good music should be tolerated. A cheap popular air is no more excusable when used as a march than if played as an instrumental solo in a program.

SUMMARY

In the socializing process, loyalty to the groups with which children are identified, such as class and room, is a step toward a more complete merging of individual interests with social aims. Therefore group loyalty is to be encouraged, taking care to appeal always to larger and larger groups as children become old enough to comprehend these larger units. They should work to improve the character and increase the accomplishment of the groups with which they are connected. Pupil-government schemes, which are elaborations of the older monitorial schemes with the addition of legislative features, are helpful in teaching civics, but are illogical and misleading in so far as they confuse the attitudes of preparation and administration. The ideals of faithful service and self-government may be taught in other ways. A more effective means of socializing the school lies in wisely planned general exercises, to which all are expected to contribute.

CHAPTER XVI

THE SUPERVISION OF DISCIPLINE

No part of the supervision of schools is more important than the supervision of their discipline; and in general it is true that no part is more difficult. As the reputation of an individual teacher stands or falls with his success or failure in keeping order,[1] so the name of a man at the head of a school system will acquire distinction or lose it accordingly as he succeeds or fails to secure order and industry and friendly coöperation throughout the schools he controls. The importance of this subject, therefore, is great enough to warrant the most careful study, both of its theoretical and of its practical aspects; and yet few supervisors undertake it in systematic manner, and little has been done to formulate the principles which underlie successful practice. The present discussion will aim to suggest, first, the function of the supervisor in securing good order where the teacher in charge has trouble; second, a means of analyzing the situation in each case; third, an outline of a typical process by which a supervisor may hope to make a good disciplinarian out of a poor one. For the excellence of a staff of

Topics of the discussion

---

[1] Ruediger and Strayer, "The Qualities of Merit in Teachers," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, May, 1910. Arthur C. Boyce, "Qualities of Merit in Secondary School Teachers," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, March, 1912.

teachers depends, so far as the superintendent is concerned, upon two abilities which he must exercise alternately and complementarily. The first is the ability to select good teachers, the second the ability to improve those whom he has selected, or those with whom Fate has provided him. Improving teachers in service is the most needed and valuable of these abilities.

The supervisor's duty

The teacher who has trouble with the order and spirit of his room has a right to expect help from his principal or superintendent. The supervisory function properly extends to the maintenance of a good school spirit expressed in cheerful conformity to school customs. When the individual teacher falls short of securing this, it is the business of the supervisor to find where the trouble lies and suggest a remedy. The supervisor, of whatever rank, who exercises a purely judicial function only, misses the most important part of his calling. His work should be judicial, then constructive, then judicial again; but the test of his work lies in his ability to build up, to strengthen, to improve, to eliminate weakness, to inspire, to make permanent each gain in efficiency. Teachers not amenable to advice — the headstrong, the conceited, the hopelessly incompetent — have no place in an efficient school system, and after a fair trial should be dismissed from service.

The fair trial, which means a trial with help, the supervisor is bound to give. He may have that in his position and his personality which is just the element wanting in the equipment of the inefficient teacher; and having it, he is morally bound to use it at any place in his whole system where it may be of service. He has experience, which brings in its wake any number of kinds of equipment. He has usually a more thorough preparation, a wider range of knowledge, than his teachers. He is, above all, the visible agent of authority in the eyes of the pupils of the school — an authority whose identification with the teacher is not always obvious to the school. All these things a supervisor must put at the service of a teacher before condemning her as a poor disciplinarian.

Analyzing the situation

Wherever bad order exists, obviously the first duty of the supervisor is to analyze the situation with care, in order to know definitely the source of weakness. Probably a clear idea of the cause of the trouble is the teacher's first, most fundamental need. Usually neither will nor disposition, but knowledge, is lacking. Four simple questions suffice, as a rule, to cover the ground of an inquiry into the cause of bad order, and they are given here in the order in which they will probably furnish the key to the situation:

1. Does the teacher have an adequate ideal of good order?

2. If not, how can such an ideal be created for this teacher, and how can he be made sensitive to failure of its realization?

3. If, or when, the ideal exists, what weakness prevents its realization?

4. What devices does this teacher need for securing good order?

Taken in this order and answered in turn, these four questions will give in almost every case a basis for advice to a teacher who has difficulty with the behavior

The ideal of order

of his pupils. The most fundamental requirement for good order is the ideal of good order, and in many cases its absence at once gives the cue for the training of the teacher, who needs to be told what to require of his pupils, and also to realize the seriousness of falling short of an approximate realization. When the teacher knows what he *ought* to have, he may still fail to have it because of some weakness of which he is either unaware, or which he is powerless to overcome. When the teacher has both an ideal and the strength to realize it, he fails because he does not know the method by which to gain his end — that is, he needs devices.

Of course it is not supposed that an experienced supervisor will necessarily follow just this order of reasoning in an attempt to ascertain the situation in a room wanting good order, for experience gives after a time a quickness of insight into the weaknesses of teachers or the peculiar difficulties of a hard place, perhaps beyond the teacher's power to change. But it can not be too strongly emphasized that a precise and correct analysis of the situation is the first duty of the superintendent who wants to help a teacher in this respect.

A constructive program

Then, having diagnosed the case, the advising physician has next to suggest a plan of treatment. The following outline of a constructive policy for supervision with a view to improving discipline is, of course, more full than actual practice in a majority of cases would require, for the reason that it aims to cover the range of needs and remedies. It is hoped that it may prove suggestive in some or all of its parts.

Giving the ideal

Where bad order springs from the lack of an adequate ideal on the teacher's part, which is the case with many young teachers who have difficulty, the work of the superintendent begins with the establishment of a conscious, imperial, and adequate ideal of good order. With this positive ideal there must also be taught, if the work is to be thorough and effective, a converse sensitiveness to bad order. The ideal will be clarified and strengthened by contrast. There are several ways in which this ideal may be brought to the teacher's notice and become a part of his own working capital. The most obvious and direct is a clear formulation of the ideal by the supervisor in as few words as possible. Then this bare statement may be illumined in an illustration by a lesson taught by the supervisor, or an hour's conduct of the room, if the nature of the case permit of this object-lesson. The teacher may be sent to observe others who are known to be good in discipline, alone or with the supervisor, being required in either case to make a summary of specific points observed, good and bad. Then there is the inspirational method of telling stories of teachers who succeeded just where the teacher in question needs to succeed — with care always to recount methods and difficulties, since nothing is less inspiring than to hear of someone who succeeded by sheer force of native genius where one's own native genius absolutely refuses to function. Added to these is a whole set of indirect helps, including general ideas of the ideal relation between teacher and pupils, the people's place in society and education, the nature of government, and the course of social evolution. These last ideas

Indirect helps

are not visionary conceptions incapable of helping a teacher over a very concrete and harassing difficulty. They have proved often to be just the remedy for evils that seem at first blush to bear no sensible relation to them. The truth is that no professional work is more calculated in its daily round of little and tedious tasks to narrow and mechanize than is teaching. A very large amount of schoolroom trouble is merely the natural result of weariness produced by too much attention to details that have gone stale, and a lack of serenity and bigness in the teacher. Any idea which brings sureness, which minimizes the importance of little annoyances, which gives that kindliness which comes with the life of big spaces and that serenity which comes with content and growth, is a direct and powerful help in securing good order.

Finding the cause

Much of the helplessness of young or weak teachers in matters of discipline comes from a lack of ability to find or analyze the causes of bad order. There is really a distinction between what may be called positive weaknesses of the teacher—faults which without blame on the part of the pupils bring about disorder — and negative weaknesses, the failure of the teacher to deal wisely with things started by the pupils. But the intuition of boys and girls is such that a teacher's weakness and its response in the pupils are rarely to be separated in actual practice. Considering, then, the bad order that begins with the pupils, teachers need to learn to distinguish two great classes of causes which predicate an essential difference in the treatment given the overt act. There are:

1. Causes which are purely accidental, incidental, or uncontrollable.

2. Causes which are motivated.

Correcting poor routine

The careful and experienced teacher so provides for every possible situation that accidental causes of disorder are reduced to a minimum. The machinery of his schoolroom takes care of all ordinary routine business without friction and without much chance of mishap. Often a more thoroughly organized schoolroom routine will do away with the greater part of a teacher's troubles, especially such as spring from noise, confusion, and idleness. The supervisor should spend some time in the room and make definite notes of the details of organization needed. The causes of trouble are usually such as poor marching order, too much freedom during intermissions, no definite place for school apparatus, a lack of brisk procedure in changing work, wandering about the room by pupils, noisy habits of putting away or getting out work, no rest provision during long school sessions, no recess for flushing the room with fresh air, and other similar details of poor management. A wise superintendent does not dismiss the matter after making suggestions; he visits the room frequently until he finds the new order of things in good working shape. By that time any disorder due to other causes will stand out with sufficient clearness to indicate its own proper treatment.

Motives

Mischief that is deliberately made can usually be attributed to one of the following motives, and dealt with according to the amount of depravity involved:

1. Vanity — the desire to attract attention.

2. Laziness — the desire to avoid exertion.

3. The desire to have fun.

4. The desire to torture — the pleasure in another's suffering.

Of these motives the last is the most serious and perhaps the least common, although young teachers, harassed by a set of active persecutors, are liable to attribute to it the greater part of their trouble. The homeopathic principle of a like cure suggests that mischief caused by childish vanity, the desire to "show off," be mended by a judicious thrust at that vanity. Where pure physical inertia causes the breach of law, the cause lies usually in a poor environment or in some physical peculiarity. Very few children are inherently lazy; indolence, where it exists in the young, is the result of habit or of physical imperfection. A too-fat child needs attention to diet and exercise, matters which must be taken up with the parents. City children are often habitually lazy because they have neither the chores and housework to do that occupy the time of country children, nor wholesome amusements to take their place. Here play-grounds, or other extracurricular activities, must solve the problem. Boys and girls who are growing fast sometimes seem unable to concentrate, even for a short time, on mental work. They need a temporary rest from it, with manual activities to help along physical development and occupy the mind without taxing it. This sort of remedy is often impossible, owing to the still too inflexible curriculum of most of our schools; but the teacher who understands the situation may be able to arrange a partial change that will at least help things along.

"Fat and lazy"

The love of fun

Inherent love of fun is no longer considered a sin, or even a tendency to be discouraged. It is regarded as a wholesome and lovely thing that should enlist the sympathy of all. The greater the teacher, in fact, the more difficult is it for him to forbid those playful impulses which are bound to interfere with the necessarily artificial routine of the schoolroom. In dealing with this kind of mischief, the true reason for forbidding it will usually appeal to a child as forcibly as it does to the older people who must cut off a pleasure with which they really sympathize heartily. Teachers forbid any fun but incidental fun in school hours because there is more serious business on hand, and because that business can never be done without giving it one's whole attention. A dignified insistence on the school's main business suffices for some children; with others, in whom animal spirits outweigh all considerations of self-interest, isolation or some other form of punishment is necessary, after which the fault can be cured largely by substitution.

The persecuting impulse

The innate love of teasing is strong in an extraordinary number of children, the stimulus that gives it expression being found in almost any unkind act or word that such children see or hear. The imitative faculties of children are particularly sharp where any display of authority is concerned; and the spectacular ways of showing authority appeal to them especially. Everyone knows that a little girl will box or whip her dolls with great gusto if she has ever been served in a similar way by her mother. Children, like negroes, placed in authority over others of their own condition are unmerciful. Given a teacher who shows himself sensitive to annoyance, children prove themselves very successful persecutors. Although they themselves have never suffered in any poignant way, they show a genius in finding ways in which the most extreme suffering can be inflicted upon the object of their persecution. The love of power finds an easy expression in acts that show others to be at one's mercy, and so exalt the tyrant in the eyes of his fellows. Any helpless person, teacher or fellow-pupil, is liable to be the victim. Where this bully attitude seems to be the motive behind disorder of any kind, that act, or habit, or whatever it may be, should be stopped at any cost with all speed and with a frank avowal of emotional repugnance. The remedy lies in the building up, not of a slow-working rational sense of justice, but of a deeply-rooted habitual prejudice.

Training for altruism

Altruistic feelings are largely a matter of habit and training. It is foolish to waste time in trying to work out a rational response to any appeal to social or personal interest here; the work needs to be done in early youth through the short-cut, effective means of prejudice, thoroughly ingrained by a liberal appeal to the whole force of public opinion. In no place is there a better excuse for the use of that well-worn device of the teacher, the exaggeration of emotional content, than here. The heinousness of the offense of him who deliberately causes pain to another can scarcely be exaggerated. There are teachers who can produce copious tears from Johnny because he has pulled Mary's braids, by a touching talk administered after school. Let such teachers add an equally eloquent description of the meanness of the desire to hurt other people, and the method may result in real good. Johnny's sense of humor does not, then, remove the effects of the histrionic rebuke when his common-sense contrasts the real wickedness of his act with its mock-heroic treatment. Whatever the method, the treatment can not be too quick, too decided, too powerful. The unquestioned use of unquestioned authority, rebuking and punishing with the sureness of Fate and the swiftness of catastrophic justice, is the best remedy for this tendency wherever it shows itself.

Analysis of motive

In analyzing motives the first requisite for success is sympathy with pupils. A real personal acquaintance will, with young teachers, pretty effectively take the place of that quick, almost intuitional insight which the experienced instructor develops. Children have an immense self-respect and reticence where their mental processes are concerned, and self-interest will bolster this up, on occasion, to the point where only keen ability can detect where the truth lies. Sympathy unlocks doors that defy even the keenest psychological knowledge; and for that reason, if for no other, the teacher who wishes to succeed as a disciplinarian needs to improve every opportunity to establish friendly relations with pupils.

Next to a sympathetic attitude toward present offenders, a retrospective recall of one's own past is needed. "He can't remember when he was young" is one of the things that no teacher wants to hear of himself; he knows that it is one of the most serious indictments that youth can bring against an instructor. A recall of the experience of having one's own motives misunderstood is one of the best helps in analyzing the motives of offenders.

Habitual study of motives

A third help in analyzing motives is practice, reinforced by comparison and cumulative proof. If the supervisor will insist on constant reference to motive in each case of corrective discipline that arises, teachers will form the habit, and skill will grow with practice. To insure this, it is suggested that he require the teacher to prepare a table, showing in one column the typical acts of a day or a week that have required correction; in a second, the motive that the teacher thinks has actuated each offense; in a third, the method of treatment used in each case, the treatment always being aimed to remove the fundamental difficulty or fault.

The teacher at fault

Where inquiry results in the teacher's consciousness of a weakness of his own as that cause, or as one of the causes, the cure is a comparatively simple matter, although it may not be easy. Curing one's own faults is easy compared to the task of curing other people's, for in the former case one has the ally of the will — the most powerful single factor in accomplishing the desired end. The weaknesses of teachers that result in poor disciplinary control are legion. They range from the fundamental ones of weak will and low ideals, through personal peculiarities, such as noisy and undignified manners, carelessness in dress and language, and cool indifference to pupils and their needs, to imitated faults for which imitated virtues may be substituted. These imitated faults include the unreasonable demands sometimes made by thoughtless teachers because some other teacher demands those things, and the copied methods of some school or teacher who has made a strong impression upon a novice. They include the dislike of a "scene" which permits little sources of disorder to grow to great ones pending the advent of an imperative call for correction; the failure to provide enough activity for the pupils; and the indulgence of a vindictive or soured disposition.

The supervisor to the rescue

All this preliminary investigation, whether it occupy several days' time or be disposed of in five minutes, is for the purpose of guiding the teacher in the application of remedies. *The cure's the thing.* The crucial function of the supervisor is to give the puzzled teacher a means of realizing the ideal of good order. The concrete help given will vary with each situation. The following suggestions, however, will cover in a general way a majority of cases where help is needed:

Means of helping teachers

1. Stimulate the teacher's volition — "bolster up his backbone." Increase self-dependence and self-respect until it reaches a point at which an affront to it becomes an unendurable outrage. This attitude is not incongruous with a true idea of the teacher's place, importance and function. It is the idea that all pupils should have of all teachers, but it is so far from the idea held in many communities and families that children come to school with no intention of living up to it unless forced to do so; and many teachers are so susceptible to prevailing public opinion, so uncertain of their standing, that they yield to the ideas of their pupils instead of insisting that the pupils come up to the real standard. Perhaps a majority of cases of bad order are due to the timidity or cowardice of some teacher — not always the teacher who suffers most and in whose room the disorder appears, although this

is usually the case. Sometimes a principal, big enough to enforce order in his own presence by dint of appeal to physical force, is responsible for bad order in the room of a woman teacher whose authority he refuses wholly to support. But in the main it is true that a teacher who has a sufficiently exalted opinion of the dignity of his rank and work, can *insist* upon deference to his authority until he gets it. The process will be long and hard unless he has active support from principal, superintendent, and school board; but if patience and health hold out, even single-handed a teacher who has enough will power can win in the end.

The teacher who shrinks from force

Sometimes a gently-bred woman recoils so violently before the distaste of a conflict with pupils, to whom considerations of courtesy and self-respect are nothing, that she would rather suffer the indignity of a lack of respect than make the necessary appeal to force. This is where the support of the superintendent, in whom for the child force doth finally reside, needs to be made apparent; but no display of it can take the place of a resolution on the teacher's part that she will brook absolutely no imposition on her prerogatives. She is dealing with an elemental situation, with human beings but partially developed, and the work must be done, if necessary, in an elemental way. She is the representative of the organized forces of society, of civilization itself, and no personal feelings should stand in the way of doing her duty by that society which has intrusted her with this part of the progress of the race. She dare not betray her trust to bring this boy or girl into the fold of social coöperation — by gentle means if he will, by force even if must be.

Signs and tokens of mischief

2. Put the teacher on the lookout for signs of coming trouble and teach him to nip them in the formative stage. Preach the consummate virtues of prevention. Call attention to the signs of coming mischief — the ominous silence, the constrained position, the too-innocent look, the idle moment. Show how brisk class movements, a diversion that attracts attention at the psychological moment, a quick check that strengthens the impression of the teacher's omniscience, prevents more mischief than the best teacher could ever hope to prevent by means of punishment.

School routine

3. Demonstrate the value of the mechanical controls of environment — the quiet, the orderly way of doing things, the system that anticipates sporadic action, a fixed, understood, and economical routine. Show the advantage of prevision.

Bases for friendliness

4. If none exist, help the teacher to establish those auxiliary school interests which further friendship and occupy spare time. Let friendliness between teacher and pupil be established upon the basis of common interests. Herein lies a great part of the value of athletics in school life; and also of music, manual arts of various sorts, and social affairs.

Making requirements clear

5. Has the teacher made clear the standard to which pupils are expected to conform? If not, how best can it be stated? Teachers have become familiar through years of training and experience, with the requirements of schoolroom routine; they may find in their rooms some boys or girls to whom one or more of these are entirely new ideas. Of course this is especially true in schools containing a foreign element.

Using the strength of the system

6. Does the teacher know the strength of the support upon which he may depend? Does he utilize the power of his position as part of a great and irresistible social organization? If teachers who are not quite sure of their success with this problem could be induced more often to report trouble, actual or anticipated, to their superiors, so that there might be a thorough understanding about it, conditions might be much improved. The assurance of support, with the confidence in a course of treatment which has been decided upon after careful consideration, begets confidence and courage. The teacher so fortified really seems to himself, and appears to his pupils, what he is — the agent of the good forces of society, rightly empowered to enforce society's dictum against those who wrong it.

Constancy

7. The teacher must be especially warned never to desert a standard until he is convinced that it is wrong.

Punishments

8. The subject of appropriate, just, and helpful punishment should be thoroughly discussed by the teaching force of every school. The teachers, rather than the school board, or some one man at the head of a system, are best fitted to decide what types of punishment are necessary or advisable in any given community. They are closer to the pupils in their daily lives; they know their home environment and training — often the most important factors in deciding school punishments — better than anyone else. And the carefully considered conclusion of the whole body of teachers, led usually by those who have had longest experience in the schools, is the best guide for the teacher young in the system.

Some general directions

9. The friendliness following a reconciliation should be complete. A supervisor in a Western normal school gave her teachers, with other instructions, this list of hints for disciplinary management:

Be a person who commands the respect of all.
Make your requirements just, reasonable, explicit.
Use the conventional forms of courtesy in directing pupils.
Notice and correct the first infraction of good order.
Be tactful, low-voiced, firm.
Do not hastily attribute fault to a child.
Do not expect disorder; assume that your pupils are anxious to do right until they prove the contrary.
Provide for all possible emergencies.

The supervisor in the community

This chapter has dealt with the part of the supervisor in securing good schoolroom discipline so far only as that duty pertains to the teachers under his direction. There is another phase of the possible influence of supervisors, especially superintendents of schools, which deserves at least a passing consideration. This is the part of the superintendent of schools in molding the public opinion of his community. The man who is at the head of a system of schools in a city or town in our country is an increasingly important individual. Aside from the immense potential influence he wields as a teacher of the next generation, he is looked to more and more as an authority upon the questions of the day. If he choose to do so he may exert a powerful influence in deciding questions of public economy and morals.[1]

---

[1] Thomas: "The Teacher and the Community," *Educational Review*, May, 1910, pp. 433 ff.

His right to be heard

With the good excuse that he is dealing with conditions that vitally affect his immediate sphere of usefulness, if any require an excuse of him, the school superintendent may and should fight those things in the life of his city that hurt the life of his school. He has a very direct interest in playgrounds, parks, and social centers. He has a right to say something about the motion pictures that are shown in local theaters, the posters that adorn the great billboards, the tone of the newspapers that the people read. All these things react for good or for evil upon the spirit and order of the schools. The influence of the superintendent, wielded directly as a member of 'official bodies, or through the press, or indirectly through women's clubs and good citizenship leagues, may help materially to better those conditions of health and morals that react so strongly upon the children in the schools. By exercising this prerogative of his position the superintendent reaches back to the ultimate causes, to the real sources of school disorder, which are ignorance and selfishness, permeating still the whole laboring, struggling mass of humanity and manifesting themselves not only in the deliberate sins of responsible men and women, but also in the blind lawlessness of misguided children.

Summary

In supervising discipline, the duties of the supervisor include analyzing the situation, to find both the nature and cause of the trouble; and then suggesting the remedy which should be applied. His duties include giving every possible aid to the teacher in charge. He may help by stiffening a weak will, by pointing out the signs of trouble that the teacher may be upon his guard, giving information of devices which will obviate trouble, suggesting auxiliary interests that will stimulate interest, supporting the teacher in his own efforts, and suggesting proper means of punishing offenders. Besides his work with his own teachers, the superintendent should use his influence to better those community conditions which affect the spirit and character of the school.

APPENDIX I

A CLASSIFIED BIBLIOGRAPHY

I. *The History of Discipline*

COMPAYRÉ, History of Pedagogy, 271–276.

DUTTON and SNEDDEN, Administration of Public Education in the U. S., 511 ff.

FROEBEL, Education of Man.

MONROE, Text Book in the History of Education, 307–312.

MONROE, Brief Course in the History of Education, 255–259.

O'SHEA, Education as Adjustment, 69–73.

QUICK, Educational Reformers, 318–333.

ROUSSEAU, Emile, 41–67.

SEELEY, History of Education, 96–100.

SHELDON, The Ethical Function of the School; *Education*, 25: 321. (1905)

SWIFT, Mind in the Making, 95.

THOMPSON, Self-Government by Students in School and College, *Soc. Ed. Quar.* i: 41.

II. *The Social Aspect*

CHANCELLOR, Educational Outlook, *Journal of Pedagogy*, Mar. 18, 1906, 209–220.

COOLEY, Human Nature and the Social Order; chaps. x, xi, xii.

CRONSON, Pupil Self-Government, 17 ff.

GREARD, The Spirit of Discipline in Education; *Education*, 5: 134, 259.

HALL, Adolescence, chap. xv.

HENDERSON, The Principles of Education, secs. 57, 61.

HENDRICK, Six Thousand Girls at School; *McClure's*, May, 1913.

LAURIE, The Training of Teachers; chap. on Authority in Relation to Discipline.

O'SHEA, Social Development and Education, Part I.

PARKINSON, Individuality and Social Adjustment as Means and Ends in Education; *Education*, 29: 16, 104.

POTTER, Social Organization in the High School; N. E. A., 1912, 181 ff.

PYLE, Outlines of Educational Psychology, chap. vi.

REPORT of the 18th Educational Conference of the Academies and High Schools in Relation with the University of Chicago; *School Review*, Jan., 1905. A comparative consideration of secret and open H. S. organizations.

RINAKER, a Socialized High School; *School and Home Education*, Nov., 1912.

ROWE, Habit Formation and the Science of Teaching, 239–243.

SMALL, Demands of Sociology upon Pedagogy; N. E. A., 1894, 174–184.

WELLS, The Parent Problem; *School Review*, Oct. 13, 1905, 635–641.

WETZEL, Student Organizations in a High School; *School Review*, May, 1905, 429–433.

III. *The Psychological Aspect*

BAGLEY, Problems of School Discipline; *School and Home Education*, 1912, pp. 128, 204, 243, 286; 1913, pp. 7, 47.

BARNES, The Pupil as a Social Factor; N. E. A., 1896, 184–189.

CHANCELLOR, Our City Schools, chap. vi.

COLVIN, Some Facts in Partial Justification of the So-Called Dogma of Formal Discipline; University of Illinois School of Education, Bulletin No. 2.

—— Practical Results of Recent Studies in Educational Psychology; *School Review*, May, 1913, 307 ff.

FISKE, The Meaning of Infancy.

FORBUSH, The Social Pedagogy of Children; *Ped. Sem.* vii (1900), 307–346.

GRIGGS, Moral Education, chap. xvii.

JAMES, Psychology (ed. 1910), chap. on Attention, 217–220.

MAENNEL, Auxiliary Education, chap. xii.

O'SHEA, Social Development and Education, Part I.
Dynamic Factors in Education, chap. i.
ROWE, Habit Formation and the Science of Teaching, chaps. v, xii.
SHELDON, The Institutional Activities of American Children; *Amer. Journal of Psychology*, ix: 425–448.
SWIFT, Mind in the Making, chap. ii.
Some Criminal Tendencies of Boyhood; *Ped. Sem.*, 8: 65–91.
WHITE, Elements of Pedagogy, 320–328.
YOCUM, Culture, Discipline, and Democracy.
YODER, A Study of the Boyhood of Great Men; *Ped. Sem.*, iii, No. 1.

IV. *The Physiological Aspect*

BRIGGS, Modern American School Buildings.
BURKS and BURKS, Health and the School.
DRESSLER, The Duty of the State in the Medical Inspection of Schools; N. E. A., 1912: 257 ff.
HOAG, The Health Index of Children.
JOHNSON, The Playground as a Factor in School Hygiene.
KOTELMANN, School Hygiene.
MARBLES, Sanitary Conditions for Schoolhouses.
ROWE, The Lighting of Schoolrooms.
Physical Nature of the Child and How to Study It.
SHAW, School Hygiene.
SHEPERD, Some Experiments on the Ventilation of a Schoolroom; *Educ. Bi-Monthly*, Oct., 1913.

V. *Discipline in its Relation to School Organization*

CLAPP, Unrecognized Causes of Corporal Punishment; *Education*, 25 (1905): 490.
DEWEY, School and Society, 29 ff.
DUTTON, Discipline; N. E. A., 1889: 487–492.
GRIGGS, Moral Education, chaps. xiii, xiv.
JACKMAN, The Relation of School Organization to Instruction; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 56 ff.
O'SHEA, Social Development and Education, 261 ff.
SCOTT, Social Education, 13 ff., 82.

VI. *Punishment*

Arnold, School and Class Management, 304–305.
Bagley, Classroom Management, chap. viii, esp. 118–122.
Baldwin, Art of School Management, 176 ff.
Chancellor, Class Teaching and Management, 160–174.
Dutton, School Management, 104 ff.
Griggs, Moral Education, chaps. xv, xvi.
Hall, Adolescence, I, 402.
Harrison, A Study of Child Nature, chap. vi.
Hughes, Answers to Mr. Sabin's Questions; *Journal of Education*, 63: 485.
Keith, Elementary Education, 119–133, 288.
Kellogg, School Management, chap. viii.
Landon, School Management, 338–360.
O'Shea, Social Development and Education, chaps. xiv, xv.
Perry, Management of a City School, 253, 254, 274, 279.
Roark, Economy in Education, 44–46.
Rugh *et al.*, Moral Training in the Public Schools, 39 ff.
Seeley, A New School Management, chap. viii.
Storm, Discipline as the Result of Self-Government; N. E. A., 1894: 764.
Sully, The Teacher's Handbook of Psychology, 562–568.
Taylor, Class Management and Discipline, chap. v.
Tompkins, Philosophy of School Management, 173 ff.
Thompson, Self-Government by Students in School and College; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 41.
Thring, Theory and Practice of Teaching, chap. xiii.
White, School Management, 207–216.

VII. *Pupil Government*

Baldwin, Self-Organized Group Work; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 39.
Buck, Boys' Self-Governing Clubs.
Chancellor, Class Teaching and Management, 149–150, 155.
Clapp, Self-Government in Public Schools; *Education*, 29: 335.
Clark, Self-Organized Group Work in the High School; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 55.
Cronson, Pupil Self-Government, Its Theory and Practice.
Dewey, School and Society.

GEORGE, George Junior Republic.

HENDERSON, The Principles of Education, secs. 44, 45, 46, 47.

JACKMAN, The Relation of School Organization to Instruction; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 55.

JENKS, Voluntary Group Work; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 33.

JOHNSON, Education by Plays and Games.

NELSON, Group Work in a Grammar Grade; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 29.

O'SHEA, Social Development and Education, 313 ff., 317 ff.

PHILLIPS, Pupil Coöperation in School Government; *Education*, 22 (1902): 538–554.

ROARK, Economy in Education, 97–8.

RIDDIE, The New School at Abbotsholme; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 53.

SCOTT, Social Education, chaps. iii–viii.

SHAW, Some Experiments in Self-Organized Group Work; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 16.

SMITH, Self-Government in Public Schools; *Atlantic Monthly*, Nov., 1908: 675–678.

STRAYER, Brief Course in the Teaching Process, 160–161.

SOME Plans for Student Coöperation in School Government; *Educ. Rev.*, 37: 519 ff.

THOMPSON, Self-Government in School and College; *Soc. Educ. Quar.*, i: 41.

THURBER, High School Government; *School Review*, 5: 32–35.

TUCKER, Government in the High School; *Education*, Sep.–Nov. 1904: 1–11, 81–89, 151–162.

UNWIN, Education in the Garden City; *Journal of Education*, 37: 821–823.

WARFIELD, Student Coöperation in College Government; N. E. A., 1894: 816.

WHITNEY, Student Advisors as an Administrative Device in High Schools; *School Review*, Jan. 12, 1904: 3–10.

VIII. *Discipline and Conduct; Instruction in Ethics*

ADDAMS, The Spirit of Youth and the City Street.

BUISSON, Education of the Will; Report U. S. Commissioner of Educ., 1901–2, i:721–740.

Dewey, Ethical Principles Underlying Education.
Moral Principles of Education.
My Pedagogic Creed.
School and Society.
Griggs, Moral Education, chaps. xviii, xix.
Harris, The Relation of School Discipline to Moral Education; Nat. Herbart. Soc. Year Book, 1897, iii: 58.
Laurie, Authority in Relation to Discipline. (London, 1882.)
Myers, Moral Training in the School; *Ped. Sem.*, xiii; 409–460.
O'Shea, Social Development and Education, 265–272.
Raymont, Principles of Education.
Moral Aspects of Training.
Rugh *et al.*, Moral Training in the Public Schools.
Sadler, (ed.) Moral Instruction and Training in Schools, i.
Sisson, The Essentials of Character, chap. xi.
Spiller, Report on Moral Instruction and on Moral Training, chap. ii.

IX. *Habit Formation*

Bair, The Practice Curve; *Psychological Review*, Monograph Supplement No. 19, (1902): 1–70.
Bawden, Study of Lapses; *Psychological Review*, Monograph Supplement, iii, No. 4, pp. 1–122.
Bradley, Work and Play, chap. vi.
Gannett, Blessed be Drudgery. (New York, 1886.)
Groos, Play of Man.
Play of Animals.
Halleck, Education of the Central Nervous System, 222–237.
Hinsdale, Art of Study, 177–181.
James, Principles of Psychology, i, chap. iv; also in Briefer Course.
Talks to Teachers, chap. viii.
Johnson, Experiments on Motor-Education; Studies from the Yale Psychology Laboratory, series i, vol. x, pp. 81 ff.
Judd, Relation of Special Training to General Intelligence; *Educ. Rev.*, ix, pp. 28–42.
Kirkpatrick, Fundamentals of Child-Study, 186–350.
Oppenheim, Mental Growth and Control, chap. vii.

Pyle, Outlines of Educational Psychology, chaps. x, xi, xii.
Sisson, Essentials of Character, chap. iv.
Stout, Analytical Psychology, i, 258–269.
Sully, The Human Mind, ii, chap. xviii.
Thorndike, Principles of Teaching, 222–6.
  Elements of Psychology, chaps. xiii and xix.
Titchener, Outlines of Psychology, chap. x.
White, Art of Teaching, chaps. i, ii, iii, vii.

X. *Formal Discipline*

Angell, The Doctrine of Formal Discipline in the Light of the Principles of General Psychology; *Educ. Rev.*, June, 1908.
Bain, Education as a Science, 139–42, 366–73.
Bagley, Educational Values, 180–215.
Baker, Educational Values; N. E. A., 1895: 197–203.
Bennett, Formal Discipline; Thesis for Doctorate, Columbia, 1905.
Colvin, Some Facts in Partial Justification of the So-Called Dogma of Formal Discipline; University of Illinois School of Education, Bulletin No. 2.
Coover and Angell, General Practice Effect of Special Exercise; *Amer. Jour. of Psychology*, 1907, 328 ff.
Hanus, Educational Aims and Educational Values, chap. i.
Heck, Mental Discipline and Educational Values.
Henderson, A Textbook in the Principles of Education, 283–317.
Hinsdale, The Dogma of Formal Discipline; *Educ. Rev.*, Sep. 1894. N. E. A., 1894, 625–635.
—— Studies in Education, 44–61.
Horne, Psychological Principles of Education, chap. vi.
Lewis, A Study in Formal Discipline; *School Review*, xiii: 281–292 (1905).
Monroe, A Textbook in the History of Education, 505–532.
O'Shea, Education as Adjustment, 246–283.
Thorndike, Educational Psychology, chap. viii.
Tompkins, Philosophy of Teaching, 265–267.
Yocum, Culture, Discipline and Democracy.
Youmans, Culture Demanded by Modern Life, 1–56.

APPENDIX II

QUESTIONS FOR STUDY[1]

CHAPTER I — *The Place and Work of the School in Modern Life*

1. What is your justification of the American school system?
2. What are the social institutions of modern life? The function of each? Of which ones are you a part?
3. What purposes does the school serve in the training of children? The home? The church?
4. What is the basis of the authority of the school?
5. Can a parent grant or deny to a teacher the right to punish his child?
6. Distinguish plainly the part of school and of church in the ethical training of children.
7. What agencies help in establishing friendly and helpful relations between home and school?

CHAPTER II — *The Modes of School Government*

1. Name the five modes of control in the order of their development.
2. Why did early schoolmasters demand obedience without questioning their right to demand it?
3. Is it still justifiable? Is it the best mode to use? When?
4. What is meant by "socially untrained" people? Have you any in your school? In your community?
5. What mode is used in the training of animals? Why?
6. What are usually the results of giving unlimited freedom to those not used to it? Give an example from school life.

---

[1] The questions given are intended, not only to test the thoroughness with which the text is read and the understanding of its content, but also to stimulate new thought and further research into the questions discussed.

7. Suppose a pupil suddenly becomes ungovernably angry in school. If he begins to throw books and ink-bottles at his classmates, what would you do? Why?
8. When does the method of absolute authority normally give way to others? Why?
9. Is it wrong to do right in the hope of receiving a reward?
10. What rewards may we rightly set before pupils as incentives?
11. Is it wrong to tell the class who stands highest?
12. What is the highest selfish good for which a student may work?
13. When do pupils begin seriously to consider their own interest?
14. What effect has the desire for self-improvement had upon the course of study?
15. Name six aims which self-interest should suggest to the student.
16. What is the danger to morals in the emphasis of the mode of Personal Influence?
17. Are the best teachers you know the most influential with their pupils?
18. Do teachers who love their pupils have always much influence over them?
19. What is the danger connected with the mode of personal influence?
20. Has a teacher a right to influence a pupil in making decisions?
21. Does it weaken the will of a child for him to yield to the influence of an older person? Of another child?
22. Can a teacher, even if he wants to, divert the allegiance of a pupil from himself to the school or to society?
23. If a group of boys or of girls have formed a clique which ostentatiously excludes one or more pupils, should they be forced to associate with those for whom they do not care?
24. Have you ever known teachers to influence pupils against other teachers? What do these teachers need?

CHAPTER III — *The Modes of School Government* (continued)

1. What is meant by the "Impenetrability of Attention"?
2. Why do you forbid the eating of apples while pupils are studying? Why not have a kitten in the schoolroom?
3. Why is "busy-work" confined mainly to the lower grades?
4. Name some good forms of seatwork for children of six, nine, and twelve years respectively.
5. Do the children in your school organize in clubs? For what purpose, if so? Do they have officers and dues?
6. What kind of clubs flourish among the grown people of your community? Is there any apparent relation between the children's and their parents' organizations?
7. Is it a good plan to organize the High School into two rival literary societies? Why?
8. Give four reasons for the occasional failure of High School organizations.
9. What are the objections to fraternities in the High School?
10. How would you go about organizing a picture-study club? A basket-ball team? A debating society?
11. Should members of athletic teams be compelled to show passing grades in all their studies, or only in a majority?
12. Why do High School students love to give plays?
13. What abilities and emotions may be utilized to give healthful employment to the energies of adolescence?

CHAPTER IV — *The Modes of School Government* (continued)

1. May the mode of social consciousness be used in the primary room?
2. May it be used with all High School pupils?
3. What is the first social institution the child meets? The next? Another?
3. Give an example of the change from individual to social aims in a little child. In an older one.
5. How do children punish each other for unsocial conduct? Does it usually effect a reform?
6. Give four great principles that govern a social institution.

7. Define the four types of school organization which utilize the feeling of social obligation in children.
8. Should privileges, such as citizenship in a school city, be granted upon the child's attaining a certain age, or upon his presenting other qualifications? Should every person who attains twenty-one years be a voting citizen of our country? Are girls allowed to vote in school cities and states?
9. Do children resent the control of other children? Should they? Do they resent the control of grown people?
10. Why does pupil government entail more work on the part of teachers?
11. Is lawlessness lessened when pupils are allowed to make their own school regulations?

CHAPTER V — *Recent Developments in American Life as they Affect the Question of Discipline*

1. Name five great characteristic influences which have served to modify methods of government in American schools.
2. What proportion of the teachers in your state are women today? Fifty years ago?
3. Is the present tendency toward more, or fewer men teachers?
4. What bad effects has the feminization of the American teaching force had?
5. Is an interested child always a good child?
6. What are the good and the bad sides of toleration? Are Americans too tolerant?
7. Do you believe in good comradeship between pupils and teachers? To what extent? Is the almost reverential attitude of a German child toward his teacher a good thing? Should it be encouraged in America?
8. Is the study of Latin and other cultural subjects increasing or decreasing in this country? Why?
9. How have methods of discipline changed in your town or district in the last twenty years? The last fifty? For the better?

CHAPTER VI — *The Prescription of Disciplinary Activities*

1. What is meant by "Formal Discipline"?
2. Does mental power come from the mastery of Mathematics or Latin?
3. How? State the general rule upon which our working theory is based.
4. What process must be added to practice to insure mental training?
5. What are "disciplinary activities"?
6. Their object?
7. Have we a right to force a child to learn a lesson when he does not want to? Can we do it?
8. Should children be compelled to learn to write, for instance, when they greatly dislike to practice the exercises?
9. What moral right has the State to force children to go to school?
10. What moral right has the State to force a man to clean up his back yard or send his children to school?
11. What habits are prescribed for children in the elementary school?
12. Can unselfishness be prescribed successfully?
13. If not, is there any kind of prescription which will develop unselfishness?
14. What is meant by "race experience"?
15. How do courses of study in schools originate?
16. Who are the authors of the present conflict with prescribed courses of study? Why?
17. Do the prescribed studies in your school answer the real needs of your pupils?
18. If not, what need is neglected? What study will answer this requirement?
19. What needs are universal, common to all, of whatever class or vocation?
20. What is the final object of prescription?
21. Name two applications of the theory of the Right of Prescription to the question of school discipline.
22. What are the outcomes of prescription for conduct?

23. If a child has an orange, and refuses to divide it with his brother, should he be compelled to do so? Why?
24. What exercises in your school tend to give control of the body?
25. If a child is really very jealous of another, is it right to teach him to conceal this jealousy? Does not the expression of a feeling tend to dissipate it? Does such concealment develop hypocrisy?

CHAPTER VII — *The Disciplinary Process*

1. What are the two phases of the disciplinary process?
2. What is the first requisite for good order?
3. In what ways does the teacher communicate his ideal to his pupils?
4. What is the most important means of realizing the ideal of good conduct?
5. State the relation of pleasure and pain to habit formation.
6. State the steps in the process of building a habit.
7. What is the greatest obstacle to the building of good habits?
8. Is it possible to cure children of faults of English that they have practiced all their lives, and hear daily at home? How?
9. How would you cure a boy of the habit of expectorating upon the floor? Of greeting the mistakes of his classmates with a horse-laugh? Of slamming doors?
10. What is the use of teaching moral axioms?
11. Do you teach your pupils any general principles which will enable them to formulate a plan of action when face to face with a difficult new situation?
12. How much of the work of your schoolroom may be included under the head of discipline in its broadest sense?
13. How is the word "discipline" used in this book?
14. What does "formal discipline" mean?
15. Distinguish the negative and positive phases of school discipline. Its constructive, destructive and reconstructive phases.
16. What is the first requisite for good order?
17. The next?

18. Name four methods of establishing the ideal of good order in the minds of pupils.
19. What is the greatest single element in realizing an ideal of good order?
20. Explain the instinctive basis of habit.
21. How may habits in the forming be encouraged or discouraged?
22. When a habit has once been established, may drill cease?
23. Why are exceptions in a drill-series so harmful?
24. Why is drill so much more important in the lower grades than in the upper?
25. Why should general principles be taught, if habit is so much quicker and surer?
26. Is it a good thing to allow a child to grow up without knowing anything of the world's greatest evils? Can general principles be given him that will enable him to meet unfamiliar situations wisely?

CHAPTER VIII — *The Spirit of the School*

1. What persons contribute to the school spirit?
2. What else has an influence?
3. Name the characteristics of a good environment.
4. May any school have a good spirit?
5. What is the connection between a soured spirit in a teacher and the atmosphere of the school?
6. Why will not children always respond to love? What influences prevent it?
7. What methods do you use with lazy children?
8. Suppose a little girl likes to bring her doll to school. Should she be allowed to do so? If so, under what conditions?
9. List the elements that make for school unity.
10. Has your school a distinctive holiday? How many festivals do you celebrate in a year?
11. Why are school gala days celebrated chiefly in the lower grades? Have older children lost their taste for good times?

CHAPTER IX — *An Analysis of Offenses Common in American Schools*

1. What is the basis of classification used in making this analysis of offenses? Name the seven classes of offenses.
2. Which of the causes of bad order given may be removed, and which, if any, are inevitable?
3. Which of the causes given are operating in your school?
4. What means aside from regular lessons do you have for fully and wholesomely occupying the time of your pupils?
5. Do you know of a school in which opposition to the teacher seems to be a tradition? How may such a tradition be changed?
6. Is this tradition the fault of teachers, or does it exist in spite of the attitude and work of teachers?
7. What constitutes a set of ideal conditions so far as physical environment is concerned, for your school? What stands in the way of realizing this ideal?
8. What differences in treatment from that accorded younger children, should be given to adolescents? Have you adolescent pupils in your school? What books have you read upon this subject?
9. How may simple tests for hearing and sight be given in an ordinary schoolroom? Have you the equipment in your school?
10. What constitutes a good diet for school children? Are the children in your school well fed?
11. Is a teacher justified in reading a note written in school?
12. Is a teacher justified in asking one pupil to betray another?
13. How would you classify the offense of reading cheap, harmful yellow-back novels in the school-room? Why?
14. What aid does the law give to teachers in your state in fighting the cigarette evil?

CHAPTER X — *Punishment*

1. How do you justify the punishment of wrong-doing theoretically? Practically?
2. What are the three functions of punishment which Saleilles gives?

3. What have been the motives for punishment as given in schools?
4. What do criminologists mean by "individualization of punishment"?
5. How else may the term be used?
6. What objects are served in punishing a boy for truancy by depriving him of a place on his school ball team? Do you consider this a good punishment? Why? What would have been a better one, if any?
7. An overgrown, idle boy forced a little girl sitting in front of him to show him her paper on examination day, by pinching her arm, and threatening to beat her on the way home if she told the teacher. Would you punish this at once, or delay punishment? How would you punish? Why? Did the little girl deserve punishment for showing the answers?
8. What class of offenses should be punished at once?
9. When should punishment be delayed?

CHAPTER XI — *Punishment* (continued)

1. What constitutes the undesirability of threats, detention after school, tasks, whippings, and nagging, as punishments? What other punishments in use do you condemn?
2. Discuss Saturation as a method of punishment.
3. What do you think of scrubbing the mouths of children guilty of using bad language?
4. Where is the use of sarcasm justifiable? Give an example.
5. What characteristic of school organization forms the basis for effective punishment? What instincts also give basis?
6. State the kinds of punishment recommended by Colgrove.
7. What two methods are there for dealing with a child who refuses to comply with the common requirements for the school?
8. Is isolation a justifiable remedy? Some educators consider it a medieval expedient. Why?
9. Suppose a punishment fails to reform the offender. Is it therefore a failure?

10. What do you think of the punishment of making a child stand in the corner?
11. What privileges do you grant as reward for good behavior and work? What privileges are withdrawn for poor conduct?
12. What constitutes a justification for suspension? For expulsion?
13. Should school boards forbid corporal punishment in schools?
14. Has the order improved or deteriorated in cities where corporal punishment is forbidden, since such prohibition went into effect?
15. Which forms of corporal punishment are advisable?
16. What forms of punishment are advisable as a substitute for corporal punishment?

CHAPTER XII — *Preventive Devices*

1. What preventive of bad behavior should the teacher always prepare before his school begins?
2. What are the reasons for not discussing or disclosing the punishment for mischief with the children?
3. How may a teacher increase the respect for himself where the community treats him slightingly?
4. Should a teacher, when appealed to to settle a controversy, decline to do so?
5. Suppose you disagree with your chief on any point of school policy. What is your duty?
6. Has a teacher a right to forbid gum-chewing upon the school grounds? The smoking of cigarettes?
7. Is it right to ask a pupil to be good for the sake of the teacher? What evil is liable to grow out of this policy?
8. Should there be a regular period for the study of Ethics?
9. Name Baldwin's nine factors of successful discipline.
10. What should be the range of pitch of a good schoolroom voice in a man? In a woman?
11. Do you enunciate clearly? Does this have anything to do with the order of your schoolroom?

12. Name the ten types of teachers who fail in discipline. Why, in each case? Especially, how does the 8th type of teacher fail? Have you ever noticed that this type of teacher often seems very successful?
13. Is it possible, as some teachers claim, to assign work which will occupy all of the time of pupils? Is it wise to do it?
14. What pupil-officers could advantageously be used in your school?
15. Have you known pupils to decline to perform duties about the schoolroom and school premises? What was the reason? How may such an attitude be changed?
16. How much home time may be fairly asked of pupils in the different grades? When may teachers begin to ask for home time for school work?
17. Do your pupils like the standard studies, such as grammar and arithmetic? Do you have time to make them interesting? Do you like them yourself?
18. Have you changed your opinion about any study that you disliked as a child? Why? Does this give you any hint about teaching?
19. Why are cooking, manual training, and sewing so popular?
20. Explain the two kinds of weariness.
21. Give four reasons for lack of interest in lessons.
22. Is the dulness of lessons an excuse for not learning them?
23. If you make every effort to interest children in the work and do not succeed, what may be the reasons?
24. Is it true that "plain Duty has gone out of fashion"?
25. Can you blame a boy for refusing to study that which has no appeal whatever for him?

CHAPTER XIII — *Corrective Devices Founded upon the Mode of Absolute Authority*

1. Is the keeping of a record of time lost by pupils who leave the room, a remedy for the abuse of this privilege in itself?
2. Should the teacher mentioned in the story of the contest for a picnic, have allowed the losing side to attend the picnic? Why?

3. Does the teacher have a right to know what pupils say in whispering in school, or in writing notes? Why?
4. Is the absolute prohibition of whispering wise? Is it common in good schools now?
5. From the list of successive steps to be followed by teachers in the Jena school, make out one for American teachers. Which steps do you omit, and why?
6. Make out a similar list of steps to be used in correcting a child for wilful idleness.
7. Is a teacher bound to listen to a child who is impertinent?
8. Why is it wise to keep a written record of misbehavior?
9. Make out a sample page of a pupil's record book.
10. Why should correspondence between parents and teachers pass through the principal's office?
11. Has the school board a right to make a set of rules for the school? Why? Is this a wise measure to take?
12. Is a bad rule better broken than kept?

CHAPTER XIV — *Corrective Devices Founded upon the Mode of Personal Influence*

1. What light has Judge Lindsey's work thrown upon the "Boy Problem"?
2. Do all teachers who want to be the friends of their pupils succeed in establishing friendly relations?
3. Do very popular teachers usually make good friends of pupils?
4. What characteristics in teachers prevent or destroy the confidence of pupils?
5. When a child is allowed to attend classes and engage in school activities on parole, should the other children know his position?
6. What motives appeal most strongly to children of any given age, as reasons for good conduct?
7. Is motivated effort as effective as habit? Is it as economical?
8. What institutions may take the place of the home in supplying motives for industry and good conduct, for those children whose homes do not give such motives?

9. Have you found "moral suasion" an effective means of control?
10. Why did not Sam's teacher try to arouse an ambition in him to become a lawyer or a teacher?
11. Is vocational guidance one of the teacher's functions?
12. Does the choice of a vocation have any marked effect upon the conduct of pupils?
13. Should a teacher endeavor to influence the opinions of his pupils upon questions of politics? Of reform? Suppose the reform issues have broken into politics?

Disciplinary Devices Founded upon the Appeal to Personal Interest

1. What are some of the personal gains which may be used as incentives for good conduct in school?
2. Do you believe in giving prizes? Why?
3. Are money prizes intrinsically wrong?
4. Name five classes of incentives.
5. What three classes of positive incentives does Bagley give?
6. Is it wrong to give the position of valedictorian to the graduate having the best record?
7. In the larger life outside the school, do honors and prizes go to the brightest and most industrious people?
8. Are numerical grades a good thing? Why?
9. Is a school excursion a justifiable incentive for hard work?
10. Should an examination ever be given as a punishment? Why?
11. List the ways in which the incentive of high character may be used.
12. How would you explain to a child the relation between his present behavior and his ultimate character?

CHAPTER XV — *Disciplinary Devices* (continued)

1. Is room or school loyalty a good thing? How developed?
2. Do the pupils of your school feel any pride in the school? Is it better than the others of the vicinity in any way?
3. Are the school children of your county proud of the county system? Do they know anything about it? Would any good come of telling them what had been accomplished?

4. Do school fights ever occur between the boys of your school and others? Why?
5. How do you arouse school pride in your pupils?
6. Distinguish between pupil government and self-government.
7. Do you have monitors in your room? What are their duties?
8. Who is responsible for the order and work of the school? Can this responsibility be shifted?
9. Summarize the arguments in favor of pupil-government.
10. Also those against it.
11. What training must precede the delegation of government to students?
12. What is the best feature of pupil-government? May this good be gained in any other way?
13. Suggest a practicable and helpful morning exercise program for your school. How much time would be needed for its preparation? Can you spare this time?

CHAPTER XVI — *The Supervision of Discipline*

1. Should a superintendent assume the final authority in all matters of discipline? Why not leave it with the individual teacher?
2. What quality in a teacher is most valued as a rule?
3. May a teacher call upon a principal or superintendent to punish a child for her? Is he bound to do it?
4. What are the four questions which usually show the source of trouble when a teacher has poor government?
5. Where did you get your ideal of school order?
6. How does it differ from the ideal of order of the generation past? Can you imagine a still better one than the one which is now practicable?
7. What is the cause of the delight that some children take in torturing one boy or girl in a school? How can this be dealt with?
8. Is the rule of the majority a righteous rule? Suppose a teacher faces a school which has decided that it will do as it pleases? Can the school ever be really a democracy? Does this show that the principle of democracy is wrong?

9. Has a pupil a right to appeal a case of injustice, or of what he thinks is injustice, to the principal? What should the principal do?
10. Should a superintendent ever mix in the political affairs of the town which he serves?
11. Is your school properly supervised? If not, can you think of a scheme to improve matters?

APPENDIX III

BLANK FORMS FOR USE IN SECURING AND MAINTAINING GOOD ORDER

I. IN TOWN OR CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Forms utilizing the positive incentive of reward of merit

1

CERTIFICATE OF MEMBERSHIP
Public School No. 73, Brooklyn, New York
Punctual and Regular Club

This certifies that..........has been punctual and regular in attendance in this school during the term.....beginning ....19...and ending ....19...and is, therefore, a Member of the *Punctual and Regular Club* of Public School No. 73. Membership in this club continues as long as a pupil is neither late in, nor absent from, this school.

Given under our hands and seal this........day of........ 19...

........................*Class Teacher.*
WILLIAM JOHN MORRISON, *Principal.*

2

"*Character and worth are the highest expressions of personality.*"
CERTIFICATE OF MEMBERSHIP
Public School No. 73, Brooklyn, New York
The Self and School Improvement League

This certifies that.........of the.......grade was punctual, regular in attendance, industrious, persevering, studious, trustworthy, and courteous, during the term ending ...., 19..., and is, therefore, a member of *The Self and School Improvement League* of this school. Membership in this league is gained by meritorious effort, good work, excellent conduct, punctuality and regularity during the term.

Given under our hands and seal this......day of..... 19...

........................*Class Teacher.*

WILLIAM J. MORRISON, *Principal.*

3

OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL OF PUBLIC SCHOOL NUMBER 73

To Whom It May Concern:

We take pleasure in recommending..................... who has been a pupil in this school for.......years and was graduated........19... ..... has been punctual, regular in attendance, industrious and successful in h... work, trustworthy and courteous.

Respectfully,

....

....

Teachers.

It gives me great pleasure to endorse these statements.

....

Principal.

Forms utilizing the negative incentive of reporting poor work or behavior

1

Public School 73, McDougal St., Brooklyn

..........19....

M..............

Dear........

..........failed to bring in the written home work in .... assigned for today. Will you please see that this work is made up and not neglected in the future?

Yours very respectfully,

.... *Teacher.*

Please sign and return to

WILLIAM J. MORRISON, *Principal.*

2

Public School 73, McDougal St., Brooklyn

.... 19....

M.............

....

Dear..........

We infer from........class work that.....is neglecting home study. Not more than one hour a day is required, and if full time be devoted to conscientious study, satisfactory results are quite sure to follow. Will you please coöperate with us by giving h.... the opportunity for study and seeing that the time is used for that purpose.

Respectfully,

.........................*Teacher.*

Please sign and return to

WILLIAM J. MORRISON, *Principal.*

3

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK
Office: Park avenue and 59th street
New York

Public School No....... Borough of ....

New York, ...19....

Mr...............

Dear............

During the past ...... your .... of class .... has been deficient in the following particulars:

....
....
....
....

.......................*Principal.*
.......................*Parent.*

4

Public School 73,
Rockaway ave. and McDougal st.,
Brooklyn.

M................
....
Dear............

I am sorry to inform you that .... has been late ....times this: { month / term / week

By seeing that he is punctual in the future, you will oblige,

Respectfully,
........................*Teacher.*

Please sign and return to

WILLIAM J. MORRISON, *Principal.*

5

Public School No. 73,
Brooklyn........19....

Mr..............
Dear Sir or Madam:

It is a matter of much regret that you must be informed of the continued and gross misconduct of your child .... in the .... grade........... does not respond to suggestions and mild treatment, consequently more rigorous methods must be employed. As .... is on the verge of suspension, will you kindly call at the school to consult with the principal before this extreme step becomes necessary?

Sincerely believing that you do not approve of, or uphold .... in ...... behavior, and that you will coöperate with us in matters pertaining to the welfare of your child, I am,

Yours respectfully,
.... *Principal.*

Kindly sign and return.

6

Concordia, Iowa, ...19....

M.............

....

My dear ....

We regret to inform you that your ...., ... has grown poorer instead of better in .... work during the past ...., and also that ....
....
....

We feel sure that you regret this as much as we, and that you will coöperate with us in locating the trouble and correcting this condition of affairs. Please come at your earliest convenience to the office of the principal for a conference.

Very sincerely yours,

.......................*Teacher.*

.......................*Principal.*

7

Room ....

............19....

.... offended today by ....

I dealt with the offense by ....
....

.... is.... restored to full relations with the school.

.......................*Teacher.*

8

Concordia, Iowa, ...19....

M.................

....

My dear..........

Today your ...., ..., was guilty of ....

and was punished by ....

....

Principal.

For Use in High School Administration

1

CONCORDIA HIGH SCHOOL

..........19....

.... has done very poor work in my class for the past .... I recommend that .... be excused from all work outside regular class exercises until the work lost has been made up and .... daily class recitations improve.

.... *Teacher.*

(Class in ....)

2

CONCORDIA HIGH SCHOOL

............19....

This is to certify that .... has done good work in my class in .... for the past two weeks, and may therefore play on the .... team.

........................*Teacher.*

3

CONCORDIA HIGH SCHOOL

..........19....

This is to certify that the record of .... both in scholarship and behavior, has been such during the past .... that .... is recommended for nomination for the honor of being ....

......................*Principal.*

4

EXCUSE SLIP

............191...

Name..

Time...

Cause..

Came home at...................................

.....................*Parent.*

(*To be filled out by pupil and later signed and returned by parent.*)

5

LOS ANGELES CITY HIGH SCHOOL DISTRICT

Blank for Lost Articles or Books

Classroom........Date............
Name..
Book or Article..
Lost when..
Lost where...
If book, private mark..................................
If article, description................................
Found when...

6

No. ...... Los Angeles, Cal., ...191...

FINDER'S RECEIPT

L. A. P. H. S.[1] *Custodian Committee*

Received from .... C. R. .... the following lost articles, to be returned to finder if not called for in ...... days: ....

Date of disposal........ Custodian Committee, L.A.P.H.S.
Sig. of Finder.......... By....................
Committeeman

7

PERMIT, GENERAL

Los Angeles, Cal., ...191...
.... of Classroom .... has permission to ....
....

8

OFFICE SUMMONS

............191...
.......................Classroom No..........

Please send the following to me at vacant periods:

....
....

---

[1] Los Angeles Polytechnic High School.

9

HIGH SCHOOL OFFICE NOTICE TO CLASS TEACHER

..............................has reported..............
....
Time................
Date................

....

10

POLYTECHNIC HIGH SCHOOL
Office Excuse

....................................detained in the office
.................period.
Time................
Date................

....

11

OFFICE REQUEST FOR PUPIL'S RECORD

................191...

....
Please give me..................record of the following:
....
....

12

NOTICE TO DELINQUENTS

...................191..

................Class, Room................
Please report at.....................on.......in room
.......without fail.

....

Signer's Teacher: If pupil is absent, please return this slip to P. O. Box.

13

SELF-GOVERNMENT CARD

......................Class of........Course.............
Called before................Committee on.........191....
for..
Action taken...
Reinstated..........on condition.........................
.................*Chairman.*

14

A set of rubber stamps kept on the teacher's or principal's desk, by which the appraisal or disposal of all ordinary cases may be quickly indicated, will help greatly in the dispatch of school business. Among them are these:

This work is below the average of the class.
Please sign and return. ....*Teacher.*

EXCUSED BY PERMISSION
UNSATISFACTORY
HOME WORK EVERY NIGHT

The above explanation is entirely satisfactory.

This child's work has been unsatisfactory for some time. Unless there is a decided improvement the pupil is not likely to be promoted at the end of the term.

Please sign and return to
...........*Teacher.*[1]

---

[1] The value of such notices can scarcely be overestimated. One standing complaint of parents is that they are not informed of the poor work or behavior of their children until it is too late to find an effective remedy. The reason is usually that the teacher is so overworked that he cannot find time to make a visit at the home or write a note. The frequent suggestion of the ready blank, and the ease with which it may be filled out and sent, will help to keep parents informed of the progress of their children, or the lack of it. Such notices should as a rule be sent through the mail.

II. IN COUNTRY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

It is generally recognized that the lack of adequate supervision is perhaps the chief cause of the poor condition of our American country schools. The existing officers preside over districts too large, having often means of transportation too limited, to permit of really effective supervision. In many places precedent for any kind of real oversight is entirely wanting. In others the clerical work incident to the office of county superintendent takes practically all his time. New and better schemes of administration are being used in some parts of the country, and additional officers are securing better results than were formerly possible. Much, however, can be done by requiring more frequent and more detailed reports than have been given in the past. Forms for such reports are given below.

1

MONTHLY REPORT OF ORDER AND BEHAVIOR IN DISTRICT NO. ..., CLAY COUNTY

General condition of school order and discipline ....
No. of cases of corporal punishment, if any ..... Suspension....
Expulsion........Cases referred to School Board ....
Report of serious cases of school discipline:
Name of Pupil...
Cause...
Treatment...
Result..
Position of Board with regard to teacher's authority..........
Do you want help from the Superintendent?.................
Written advice, or a personal visit?.......................
To what do you attribute your trouble, if any exists?.........
.................19....

...............*Teacher*.

Note. — Report additional cases of discipline in the manner indicated, on the back of this paper. Do not neglect to report any serious case; you will not be considered a poor teacher for trying to improve conditions, but for ignoring them or concealing them. Write additional details if they should be reported.

..............*Superintendent.*

Such a report as the foregoing will be found helpful in ascertaining the true condition of affairs in sections of the country where there is known to be much trouble with discipline. It enables the supervising officer to locate specific cases, to give his personal attention to them if necessary while they are still recent offenses, and to find out where weak teachers, cowardly school boards, and communities of low standards exist. Where disciplinary trouble is not so prevalent, the following report, sent immediately after the event, may be more helpful; or this report may be used to supplement the monthly report, or to give notice of cases that require immediate help.

2

REPORT OF SPECIAL DISCIPLINE IN DISTRICT NO. ......, CLAY COUNTY

Act which occasioned the trouble..........................
Name or names of pupils implicated........................
Method of dealing with offense ....
Result..
Present status of offending pupil or pupils...................
Did you report this case to your school board?...............
What action, if any, did they take?.........................
Did you report this case to the parents of the offender?.......
Result?...
In what way can the Superintendent help you?...............
Remarks...

.................*Teacher.*

...................19....

Sometimes it is very helpful for a county officer to have reports from the local boards, where such exist; and this is especially the case where there is a suspicion that the fault lies with the teacher. In any case it gives to the supervisor another view of the situation than the teacher's, and so helps him to know his problem better. The following form is intended for occasional use, but could easily be changed into a monthly report where the conditions are bad enough to warrant such, or the boards energetic enough to send it.

3

REPORT OF SPECIAL DISCIPLINE IN DISTRICT NO. ......, CLAY COUNTY

Name of teacher in this district.............................
Length of h.... service...
Date of present case of discipline...........................
Name of offender or offenders.................................
Nature of offense...
Teacher's treatment of offense.................................
Result..
What mistake did the teacher make, if any, and why?........
....
What is the success of this teacher as a disciplinarian?........
Are there special conditions in your district which make discipline difficult?...
What is the past record of the present offender?..............
Does the family of the offender uphold him in his conduct?.....
What action has the Board taken in this case?...............
.... *Clerk of Board.*
.................19....

An annual report from each district, in counties where there is little trouble, will enable a supervisor to ascertain which are the weak or unfortunate districts in his territory, and perhaps also help in indicating weak and strong teachers. Such reports tend also to set a standard of good behavior, and give a strong incentive for its realization. If an honor roll of schools in which no bad behavior has been reported during the year be established in connection with the reports, the immediate incentive will be stronger; but it may also militate against honesty in reporting trouble, and should be used only after careful consideration of conditions and needs.

4

ANNUAL REPORT OF ORDER AND DISCIPLINE IN DISTRICT NO. ......, CLAY COUNTY

	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	For the Year
General Conditions											
Specific cases of corporal punishment											
Specific cases reported to parents											
Specific cases reported to Board											
Suspensions											
Expulsions											
Greatest problem (with regard to order)											
Attitude of Board											
Attitude of community											
Effort to arouse or improve school spirit											
Effort to arouse or improve community spirit											

..................19.... ....*Teacher*

INDEX

PAGE
Abnormals, authority for.........19
    temporary............20
Absolute authority, mode of.......14
    devices for...210
Acquisitiveness.................264
Action, stimuli to.................36
Adler, Felix......................7
Administration of high school activities.....................48
Adolescence, guidance in..........34
    rewards in...........24
    ambition in..........51
Air in schoolrooms..............129
Alcohol........................157
Altruism.......................294
Analysis of motives for conduct...295
    of schoolroom situations .287
Animals in school...............148
"Appropriate" punishments......185
Aristotle........................86
Arney, General W. F. M..........35
Arnold, Felix.............. 184, 219
Assignments, bearing upon interest.....................229
Association and ambition.........51
Attention.......................35

Bad odors in school.............148
Baden-Powell, Sir George.........31
Bagley, W. C........63, 98, 100, 260
Baldwin, J......................216
Beauty in school environment....112
Boyce, A. C....................285
Brownlee, Jane............ 60, 215
Busywork.......................36

Ceremony.......................49
Character development..........265
Charter for school city, reference to.........................63
Cheating.......................146
Civilization.....................53

PAGE
Cocaine........................158
Colgrove, C. P......... 186, 187, 216
Comfort in school................112
Committee pupil-government......66
Community, influence of.........135
    work of teachers....257
Complaint book 241
Conduct, affected by constant choice.......................27
    evaluation of.......255
    motivation of......252
Consequences, immediate and delayed......................173
Contagion of success............252
Corporal punishment............197
Correlation, bearing upon interest.229
    of ideals..............96
Crude manners, offenses of.......159
Cultural ideal....................78
Curriculums, nature of............4
    affected by hope of reward....25

Democracy and discipline.........77
    in high schools........41
Detention after school...........182
Devotional exercises.............280
Dexter, E. G....................128
Diaz, Porfirio...................31
Disobedience...................126
Dressler, F. B..................131
Drugs.........................157

Elson and Bachman.............242
Environment, influence of........111
Equipment, bearing upon interest.228
Examinations...................263
Expiation......................165
Expulsion......................196

Faculty control of self-government.......................59
Failure in teaching.............219

PAGE
Fat children....................292
Fatigue, false and true..........226
Feminization of schools...........74
Fighting........................137
Formal discipline.................81
Francis W. Parker School........277

Gambling........................146
Gang loyalty............... 30, 138
George, W. R.....................31
George Junior Republic...........63
German schools...................17
Good-nature in school 114
Grades..........................262

Habit forming 84, 100
Hall, G. Stanley................141
Harris, Leo.....................246
Hazing..........................155
Helping teachers with discipline..297
Heroin..........................158
High schools, organizations in.....38
Holmes, Dr. O. W.................16
Horseplay.......................161

Ideal of order.............. 94, 288
Imitation, offenses of....... 139, 151
Immigrant children...............18
Impudence................ 160, 240
Impenetrability of attention and
    interest.....................35
Inattention in class.............239
Incentives......................260
Indignities, personal............183
Individualization of punishment..169
Insanitary school premises.......129
Interest, a basis for organization...43
    and discipline........224
    Doctrine of...... 75, 227
Intrinsic appeal of busywork......37
Instinct and habit...............98
Instincts, classified............100
Isolation as a punishment.55, 187, 236

James, William............ 220, 230
Jena Practice School............239
John Crerar School...............61
Jones, Henry, story of..........201
Joy in school life..............117
Judgment in conduct.............106
Juvenile courts.................249

PAGE
Kindergarten children...........230
Kirkpatrick, E. A...............100

Lagrange School..................60
Lapses in habit series..........103
Lawlessness 152
Leadership in high schools........52
Leaving the room................233
Library rules in high schools.....239
Light in schoolrooms............129
Lindsey, Judge Ben..............249
Los Angeles, 30th Street School....65
    Polytechnic High School..65
Loyalty, class or room 268
Lying...........................141

McKinley High School.............48
Malnutrition....................134
Manhattan, School No. 3..........62
Marching........................283
Mental discipline................84
Minneapolis Schoolmasters' Club.121
Misdirected energy, offenses of...121
Monitors........................272
Morality and religion.............11
Morning exercises...............277
Motivation of school work........37
    of high school work...39
    of conduct..... 252, 291

New Paltz Normal School..........62
Note-writing....................122

Obedience.......................117
Obscenity................. 133, 155
Offner, Max.....................230
Organizations in high schools......38
    administration of............48
    membership in...............45
    nature of...................44
Outcomes of discipline...........89

Parochial schools...............216
Parole system...................251
Pennants for attendance.........269
Perry, A. C...............7, 98, 198
Personal influence, mode of.......28
    devices for....214
Persecuting impulse.............293
Perverted ideals, offenses of......135
Philips, W. L...................271

PAGE
Physical conditions, offenses of.. 128
Pillsbury, W. B.................230
Play-spirit, growth of...........119
Plutarch......................34
Positive and negative discipline....92
Pre-eminence..................261
Privileges................. 190, 262
Prize-giving..................259
Profanity.....................155
Psychology of Wholesome Repletion.......................49
Punishment, sureness of..........23
    history of..........164
    motives for.... 165, 168
    for prevention.....167
    for reformation.....168
Pupil government...............272
    types of...................58

Race accomplishment.............3
Race experience and prescription..85
Ray system.....................61
Record books for pupils.........242
Rein, Dr. W............... 222, 239
Reminders.....................250
Reports to parents..............189
Resentful resistance, offenses of...124
Restitution....................194
Retaliation....................165
Rewards, hope of................21
    delayed and subjective....22, 24
    of social conduct.............54
Ridicule.................. 153, 186
Riley, J. W....................246
Robinson, Mary C...............110
Roman worship..................27
Routine in school work..... 291, 299
Ruediger, W. C..................82
Ruediger and Strayer...........285
Rules.........................244

Saleilles, S. F. R................169
Sarcasm.......................186
Saturation.....................184
School, functions of............ 2, 4
    requirements made of......5
    and the state.............6
    and parents...............7
    and the child.............10
    and the church...........11
    spirit.............. 77, 113

PAGE
School, strikes..................156
    its benevolent despotism..212
    officers..................222
    lunch....................227
    hierarchy.................243
Self-improvement of pupils.......264
Sensationalism.................147
Service ideal...................276
Shielding evil-doers.............140
Shyness........................52
Social aims, prescription of........85
Social consciousness, mode of......53
Socialization....................30
Spencer, Herbert................173
Stealing.......................144
Strayer, G. D...................275
Student scholarship committee....68
Sully, James...................260
Supervisor's duty in discipline....286
Suspension.....................195

Tasks as punishment............179
Temperature...................128
Textbook evil..................228
Thomas, A. O..................301
Threats.......................178
Thurber, C. H...................65
Tobacco......................157
Todd, A. J......................9
Toleration.....................76
Tompkins, Arnold..... 120, 141, 255
Tongue-lashing.................206
Truancy......................126

Ultimate authority, appeal to....201
Uncontrolled temper............266
Unity in the school.............119
Unsocial conduct, results of.......55
Untrained moral judgment, offenses of..................135

Vandalism................ 124, 160
Visiting schools..................94

Walks, need of.................130
Warren, Pa., High School.........65
Whispering............... 122, 235
Wholesome repletion, mode of.....35
    devices for.................221
Work, spirit of.................115
Worth-while, inspiration of the...116

LIBRARY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
To avoid fine, this book should be returned on
or before the date last stamped below
10M—9-39

AUG 1943
AUG 1947
DEC 16 1949
OCT 3 1 1951
DEC 13 1960
FEB 19 1962
F FEB 26 1965
NOV 1972
NOV 15 1972
MAY 28 1979
DEC 03 1998

371 .M838 C.2
The discipline of the school,
Stanford University Libraries
3 6105 033 367 736

371
M838
cop. 2

563542